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BY EDNA HALL





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GRAMMAR MADE EASY



Made Easy Series

GRAMMAR MADE EASY

WITH COMPLETE EXAMINATION
QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

BY

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" F.R.G.S., etc.



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INTRODUCTION

GRAMMAR is merely an orderly exposition of the correct forms in speech. It has nothing to do with the graces of expression, the beauty of language. Its sole office is to present a method through which we may determine just what is a proper usage of words in their various relationships to one another.

Correct speech depends for its authority wholly on the fact that it is the kind of speech employed by persons of education and refinement. One who has been reared in a better class of society, and has had the advantages of education and of constant association with cultured persons, speaks naturally with a certain degree of elegance. On the other hand, one not thus fortunate in the method of his bringing up naturally speaks a ruder language. Here, indeed, hypocrisy is quite impossible. Most sins are capable of being more or less concealed, but there is no hiding the offenses of an illiterate tongue. The ambitious individual, who speaks badly from lack

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of training, must set himself to serious study if he would improve his condition in this matter and must avail himself of all possible opportunities to read and hear English of the better sort.

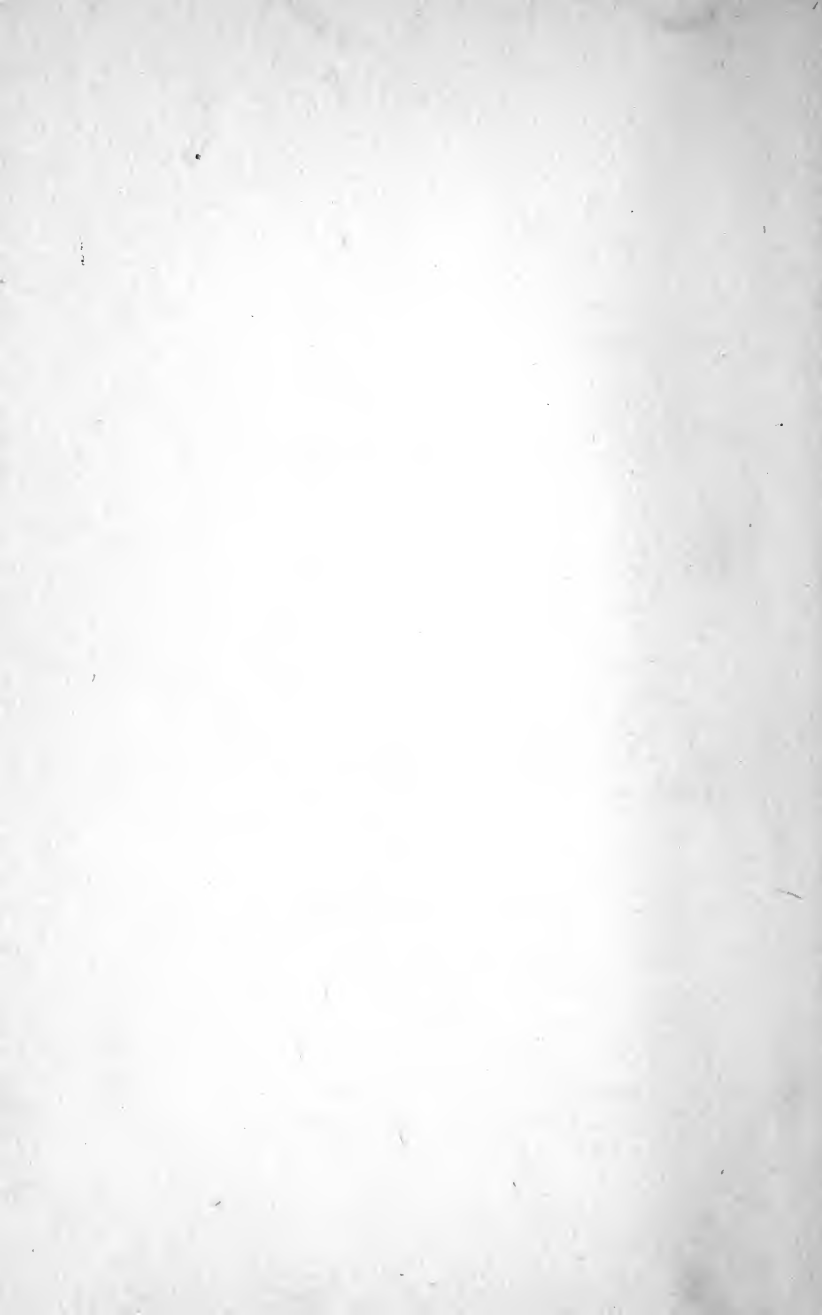
First and foremost, the student should master the elements of grammar. Nor need he be alarmed by this necessity. The task is by no means a hard one. There is, in fact, very little to be learned, if only the essentials are considered.

The usual grammar displays a mass of technical terms that may well dismay the student. The multiplied details of this new vocabulary are confusing, and they are, as well, quite unnecessary. In the pages that follow, the author has omitted such terminology whenever he deemed their omission judicious. He has included technical terms whenever necessary, but only after such explanations as should render understanding easy.

In the study of grammar, the student has an advantage unknown in connection with any other subject for learning. This advantage lies in the fact that he is already master of grammar as a whole. He has now to learn only a few details. Such mastery is the result

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of his having learned to talk. In ordinary speech, he unconsciously applies all the principles of grammar. Compared with the total of his utterances, the amount of error is very small. If the student will bear this gratifying truth in mind, he will avoid any danger of discouragement, and he will find particular pleasure in the discovery of his faults. For he will know that they are so few in number as to place the correcting of them easily within his power.



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Part I

ELEMENTS OF GRAMMAR

Grammar Made Easy

CHAPTER I

THE NOUN

ALL the words in our language are divided into eight classes. Grammar is the science that deals with these eight classes of words, in their various phases, and especially in their relations to one another.

The eight divisions are as follows:

Noun, pronoun, adjective, verb, adverb, preposition, conjunction and interjection.

The word noun means literally merely a name. The use of the term is conveniently limited to designate the name of anything. Thus, the word *water* is the name given to that liquid which is made up of two parts of hydrogen and one part of oxygen. The word *water*

is a noun. A great body of salt water is called a *sea*. That word *sea* also is a noun. When water freezes, the term *ice* is used to describe it in the solid state. *Ice*, again, is a noun. So, too, is the word *steam*. And as of *water*, so of everything that is, or has been, or shall be. Whatever the name, it is a noun. The thing named may be the most abstract of abstract ideas, or it may be the most concrete among the substantial things about us. Whatever it is, the name is a noun. The word *economy* is a noun; likewise, the word *prodigality*. Equally nouns are the words *cat*, *dog*, *Leviathan*.

It is usual to separate nouns broadly as being either common or proper. Common nouns are those names applied to describe individual members of groups. *Cat* and *dog* are common nouns. Indeed, the vast preponderance of the names are common nouns. This will be instantly appreciated when the fact is understood that the proper noun is the special name given to a certain person or thing. In the example given above, the name *Leviathan* is a proper noun. It is spelled with a capital, as being the name of a ship. It is the proper name of the vessel, and because it is the

proper name, we made use of the same word, proper, in describing the noun.

If we were to spell the word with a small *l*, using it, not as the name of a modern ship, but as the name of a prehistoric sea monster — that old *leviathan* of which the Hebrew Scriptures tell — then the name would designate only an individual in an animal group, and it would be a common noun.

When we speak of a man named *Smith*, the word *Smith* is a proper noun. But when we speak of the *smith* at his forge, the word *smith* is a common noun. *Jack* and *Fill* and every other name of a person, first name, middle name, last name, all are proper nouns. The distinctive name given to either a person or a thing which is the individual appellation of that object, is a proper noun.

Nevertheless, the distinction between common nouns and proper nouns is of no vital importance in the study of grammar. The student requires a knowledge of the terms as a matter of convenience, rather than for any practical benefit in the mastery of language.

Another attribute of nouns to which grammarians usually give considerable attention is the gender. This may be either masculine,

feminine, or neuter. Whatever is neither masculine nor feminine, must be neuter. As every one knows, human beings are divided into two sexes: the masculine and the feminine. The same distinction of sex is indicated by the words male and female, which include in their scope not only humanity, but all living creatures. The name of each individual creature has its gender in accordance with the sex of that creature. The noun *king* is masculine gender; the noun *queen* is feminine gender. The noun *bull* is masculine gender; the noun *cow* is feminine gender.

It should be noted that where the sex is deemed unimportant, as sometimes in reference to animals or children, they are treated as neuter.

A vast advantage is enjoyed by the student of English over his fellow students of other languages by reason of the simplicity that characterizes our use of genders. In those other languages, the distinctions as to the different genders are artificial. Moreover, they demand distinctive changes in the forms of words according to the variations in gender. Indeed, in many foreign tongues, the matter of gender presents enormous difficulties to the

student. Our own speech, however, is wonderfully blest in this regard. The English gender is determined absolutely by the sex of the object named — or by its lack of any sex. The names of all males are masculine nouns; of all females, feminine nouns. And, if a thing is neither male nor female, its name is a noun of neuter gender. Furthermore, there are practically no variations in the forms of English nouns to represent the different genders. The student may well be thankful.

Another attribute of the noun is called person, which may be either, the first, second, or third. When the noun is the name of the one who speaks, it is in the first person; when it is the name of the one to whom the speech is addressed, it is in the second person; when it is the name of a person or thing concerning which the speech is uttered, it is in the third person.

The foregoing brief statement is sufficient for the present. The usefulness of this method of classification will become apparent later on.

The third attribute of nouns is number. The number may be either singular or plural. Where only a single person or thing is con-

cerned, the noun is in the singular number. When there are more than one person or thing concerned, the noun is in the plural number. The plural of English words is formed by adding either *s*, or *es*, to the singular. There are some exceptions to this rule, but they are very few comparatively, and most of them are so familiar to everybody that they need no enumeration.

Another attribute of the noun is the case. This may be the nominative, or the possessive, or the objective. In our language, the form of the noun is precisely the same whether it is in the nominative case, or in the objective. The difference between the two is concerned with the noun's relations to other words. Thus, the subject of a verb is described always as being in the nominative case, while the object of a verb or preposition is always in the objective case. A full explanation of these relationships and the significance of the nominative and the objective cases will be given in connection with those two parts of speech, the verb and the preposition.

The possessive case is the only one for English nouns that has a distinctive form of its own. This is secured by adding *'s* to the

noun. The sign indicates possession. We write *the boy's hat*, and the 's, following the noun *boy*, shows that the hat belongs to the boy. The usage for the possessive case in connection with plural words makes the addition of the (') alone suffice. Ordinarily, too, when a singular noun ends in *s*, the possessive case is formed by adding merely the ('). In England, however, it is customary to follow the (') with an *s* in such words. Thus we write *James' hat*; but a London street sign reads *St. James's Street*.

A noun may be used to define another noun in some manner by being placed immediately after such other noun, with which it is then said to be in apposition. Thus in the sentence, "The newcomer, a stranger, bowed," the noun *stranger* is in apposition with the noun *newcomer*, which it defines. Such a noun in apposition has the same case as the principal noun, whether this case be the nominative, the possessive, or the objective.

A pronoun also may be thus used in apposition.

CHAPTER II

THE PRONOUN

THE nature of a pronoun is much more complex than that of the noun, and it would offer serious difficulty to the student, were it not for the fact that in learning to talk he has really mastered the various uses of all the different pronouns, so that now he has to acquire only a little knowledge in description of things already practically familiar. He is well acquainted with the pronouns; even the diverse forms in the declension of them have been mastered. He needs, in addition, merely an understanding of certain terms that serve in explaining grammatical relationships.

The literal meaning of the word pronoun exactly defines it. It is a word used *for* a *noun* — that is, it is employed as a substitute. By the use of a pronoun, we have a simple and convenient means of speaking or writing clearly, while avoiding tiresome repetitions of a particular word.

The noun in place of which a pronoun is used is called the antecedent. This word means literally that going before. Ordinarily, a noun is first used, and afterward the pronoun takes its place. But, in certain cases to which attention will be given later on, a pronoun is used without any antecedent having been expressed. Sometimes, too, a pronoun may itself serve as the antecedent for a following pronoun.

Like nouns, pronouns have gender, person, number and case. It is a rule in all languages that a pronoun must agree with its antecedent in gender, person and number. In English, the application of this rule is very simple, owing to the fact that our language is not highly inflected.

A personal pronoun is one that varies in its form according as it is a substitute for a noun of the first person, or of the second, or of the third. The inflection of these pronouns is the most elaborate that we have in our English tongue. These pronouns are: *I, thou, he, she, it, we, you* and *they*. Of these, the first five are in the singular number, and the other three are in the plural. These are declined as follows:

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First Person

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
Nominative:	<i>I</i>	<i>we</i>
Possessive:	<i>my, mine</i>	<i>our, ours</i>
Objective:	<i>me</i>	<i>us</i>

Second Person

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
Nominative:	<i>thou</i>	<i>you</i>
Possessive:	<i>thy, thine</i>	<i>your, yours</i>
Objective:	<i>thee</i>	<i>you</i>

In the declensions of the first person and of the second, there is no distinction for the pronouns to indicate gender. The gender of the nouns for which the pronouns stand may be either masculine or feminine, but only the one form of the pronouns is employed. The matter is otherwise in reference to the third person. In the instance of these pronouns, the form in the singular varies in accordance with the gender of the noun represented by the pronoun, whether masculine, feminine or neuter.

Third Person

Singular

	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nominative:	<i>he</i>	<i>she</i>	<i>it</i>
Possessive:	<i>his</i>	<i>her, hers</i>	<i>its</i>
Objective:	<i>him</i>	<i>her</i>	<i>it</i>

Plural

All genders

Nominative:	<i>they</i>
Possessive:	<i>their, theirs</i>
Objective:	<i>them</i>

It will be understood, of course, that when a pronoun of the third person is used, its gender must be the same as that of the noun for which it stands.

Our language permits the use of a neuter pronoun in the third person when it is intended to disregard the sex of the noun for which the pronoun stands. Thus *it* and *its* are commonly employed when referring to an animal, when the sex of the creature is unimportant. Similarly, too, *it* and *its* are often used when the reference is to a child. Although, in such cases, a neuter pronoun is permissible, this

fact by no means implies that the antecedent noun is of the neuter gender. The noun *animal* or the noun *child* is usually described as of a common gender. This really means that the animal or the child is of an indeterminate gender. There is a gender possessed by such a noun, but we are not taking heed to it for the moment, and so save ourselves trouble by substituting a neuter pronoun. The student must observe, however, that as a rule nouns of common gender are not represented by neuter pronouns, but, instead, the gender of the pronoun varies according to the circumstances. Thus, in using a pronoun of the third person in place of the noun *friend*, *he* or *his* or *him* would be right, if the individual referred to were a man; while *she*, or *hers*, or *her* would be right, if the individual were a woman. So, too, of similar nouns, such as *neighbor*, *enemy*, *teacher*, and the many others like, for which the pronouns are either masculine or feminine. It should be noted, also, that when the gender of such a noun is unknown, it is customary to use the masculine pronoun.

Where alternate forms are given in the declension for the possessive case, there is a

distinction in their use. Ordinarily, the forms *my*, *our*, *thy*, *your*, *her* and *their* are employed when the pronoun is followed by a noun. Thus, we say: "*My hat*," "*our hat*," etc. The *mine*, *ours*, *yours*, *hers*, and *theirs* are employed when there is no noun following them. Thus, we say: "The cap is *mine*," "The cap is *ours*," etc.

But both *his* and *its* are used with a noun following, or without a noun following. For example, "The man has *his* treasure, and that treasure is *his*." In this sentence, the first *his* is followed by a noun, while the second is not.

A compound personal pronoun is formed by adding *self* or *selves* to either the nominative or the objective case of the personal pronoun. Thus we have *myself*, *ourselves*, *thysself*, *yourself*, *yourselves*, *himself*, *herself*, *itself*, *themselves*. It will be observed that in the making of these compounds the possessive case of the prefix is used in some instances, but not in all. The objective case of the prefix is used in *himself* and *themselves* simply as a matter of convenience, since the words *bissself* and *theirselves* would be awkward either to speak or to hear.

THE DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUN

A demonstrative pronoun refers directly to the noun for which it stands. There are but two pronouns of the sort: *this* and *that* in the singular, *these* and *those* in the plural. *This* is used in reference to an antecedent that is somehow close; while *that* distinguishes something farther away. For example, we say, "*This* is my seat, and *that* is yours." "*This* is the day we celebrate," is spoken of the present time. For the more distant date, *that* would usually be employed. Thus: "*That* was a wonderful day." It should be noted that these demonstrative pronouns may be used to indicate a clause or a sentence instead of a single noun. For example, in such a sentence as the following: "Will he ever return? Answer me *that*." Here, the antecedent of *that* is the entire interrogative sentence.

THE INTERROGATIVE PRONOUN

The interrogative pronouns are for use in questions. They are only three in number, and all of them are employed also as relative pronouns. They are, *who*, *which* and *what*.

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The only one of the three that has a declension is *who*. The forms are as follows:

Nominative:	<i>who</i>
Possessive:	<i>whose</i>
Objective:	<i>whom</i>

These forms remain the same whether the interrogative pronoun is masculine or feminine, whether singular or plural.

And as the forms of this one interrogative pronoun remain the same whatever the gender, person and number, so *which* and *what* are invariable. They remain wholly unchanged also in the different cases. Possession in the case of these two pronouns is signified by *of* preceding the pronoun.

Who and its variants, *whose* and *whom*, are employed when the pronoun refers to a person or persons, whether the noun be masculine or feminine.

Which, on the other hand, is much broader in scope, and is commonly used in its interrogative significance for both human beings and for animals, and also for objects of any sort.

The student must bear in mind that the interrogative pronoun lacks always an antecedent. This is necessarily so from the nature

of its function. It serves to direct the inquiry as to some person or thing unknown.

THE RELATIVE PRONOUN

A relative pronoun is one that refers to an expressed antecedent of which something is said. These pronouns are *who*, *which*, *what*, and *that*. The only one of these that has varying forms for the different cases is *who*, which as a relative pronoun follows exactly its forms as an interrogative pronoun — namely:

Nominative: *who*

Possessive: *whose*

Objective: *whom*

These forms are the same for masculine and feminine, for singular and plural. There is no change for gender or number or case for *which*, *what* and *that*. *Of* before the pronoun takes the place of the possessive case. Examples of the use of these pronouns are as follows: "I knew a boy *who* sang." "I knew many boys *who* sang." "Behold the scene *that* all patriots love." "There are many countries *that* I like." "Swimming, *which* is most pleasant, is also capital exercise." "The monkey eats nuts, *which* are a nourishing food."

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The relative pronoun may have a clause for its antecedent, as well as a noun. Thus: "He is a lover of all sports, *which* keeps him from growing old."

The distinctions in the matter of gender concerning relative pronouns are exactly those already set forth as to the interrogative pronouns.

Which and *what* are used only in the third person, but *who* and *that* are employed for any one of the three persons.

The terminations *ever* and *soever* are sometimes added to *who*, *which* and *what*, thus broadening the scope of the pronoun. They are added also to the objective case of *who* to form *whomever* and *whomsoever*. These combinations are called compound relative pronouns.

THE INDEFINITE PRONOUN

Where the object to which the pronoun refers is indefinite, the pronoun itself is termed indefinite. Such pronouns are *another*, *any*, *both*, *each*, *either*, *neither*, *none*, *one*, *other*, *some*, *such*.

There are no variations for cases in these words. *Another*, *each*, *either*, and *neither* are singular pronouns, having no plural. *Some*

and *such* are used in both numbers. *Any* and *both* are limited to the plural. There are distinctive forms for singular and plural for the pronouns *one*, *ones* and *other*, *others*. *None* is strictly a singular pronoun, but it is commonly used also in a plural sense.

PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES

Most of the pronouns may be used before a noun or pronoun as adjectives to qualify the meaning. In this use, they are also termed adjective pronouns. All of the indefinite pronouns may be thus employed, with the single exception of *none*. Of the interrogatives and relatives, *which* and *what* serve as pronominal adjectives; so, also, the demonstratives, *this*, *these* and *that*, *those*.

It should be noted that neither *who* nor *none* is thus used.

CHAPTER III

THE ADJECTIVE

AN adjective is a word that describes a noun or pronoun. In the phrases, *a big dog*, *the small horse*, *the thin wood*, *the open sea*, the words *big*, *small*, *thin*, *open*, are adjectives, since each of them serves to define in some particular way the noun following it. But it should be noted that the adjective is not necessarily next to the noun or pronoun which it modifies or limits. Thus, descriptive adjectives are often found separated from the noun or pronoun by a verb. "The house is *warm*," offers an example, for in this sentence *warm* is an adjective that describes the noun house, but it is separated from the noun by the word *is*.

The numbers, *one*, *two*, *three*, *four*, *five*, and so on, are commonly employed as adjectives. Thus we say, *three men*, or *seven women*, etc. Such adjectives are often termed limiting adjectives, and in this same class are included other adjectives of quantity or measure, either

in space or time. Examples are such words as *single*, *double*, *hourly*, *annually*, and the like.

While an adjective ordinarily precedes its noun, it always follows a pronoun. For example, "We saw him alive and well an hour before it happened." In this sentence, the words *alive* and *well* are adjectives modifying the pronoun *him*.

Adjectives in English, contrary to the usage in most other languages, never change their form, to indicate gender, person, number or case.

The only change made in an adjective is in order to signify more or less effect from its qualifications of a noun or pronoun. There are three degrees in the comparison of adjectives, as it is termed. In the positive degree, no comparison with another object is presented by the use of the adjective. In using the words, *the smart boy*, no reference is made to any other boy, and the adjective, *smart*, has its simple form, unmodified. But when we speak of *the smarter boy*, the words carry with them a distinct reference to another boy less smart. Here, the ending *er* is added to the adjective *smart*, and this termination is the sign of the comparative degree, in which

one person or thing is compared with another. The word *more* preceding the adjective has the same meaning as the suffix *er* added to the adjective. In such comparative use, the adjective may indicate either more or less of its quality, but in the latter use, it is preceded by the word *less*. Thus, in the sentence above, the phrase, *another boy less smart*, shows the comparative degree of the adjective, but indicated here by the word *less* preceding it.

As the words imply, the superlative degree is that of an adjective expressing the greatest or the least of its quality for its noun or pronoun as compared with other objects. For example, *the greatest man in the world*, contains the assertion that the man spoken of is superior to every other man. *Est* is here the ending by which the superlative degree is indicated.

Words of one syllable form the comparative by adding *er* to the adjective, and the superlative by adding *est*. *Er* and *est* are also used often with words of two syllables. *More* and *most*, *less* and *least*, are employed for the comparative and superlative respectively with words of two or more syllables.

Most is added to the word to form the super-

lative in the case of a few adjectives. *Foremost* gives a familiar example of this usage.

It should be noted that the comparative degree includes only two objects or two groups of objects, but the superlative includes more than two. In the comparative degree, *than* precedes the object of the comparison. For example: "He is younger *than* she is." *Of* precedes the object in the superlative degree, ordinarily. Thus, we say: "the happiest *of* men." But other words may be used, for example *in* — "the happiest man *in* the world." Often, the object may be omitted, and merely implied from the nature of the statement. For example, "The happiest man is he who knows peace."

THE NUMERAL

Numerals are adjectives of number. They are divided into two classes, cardinals and ordinals.

The cardinals merely indicate number, without any qualification. For example: *one man, seven women, a thousand children.*

The numerals are employed also as nouns. For example: "*Seventy-five* were killed in the accident." When serving as a noun, the cardinal may be used as a plural word.

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The ordinals signify a certain place in a series of numbers. They are formed usually by a suffix to the cardinal. But the ordinals *first* and *second* are not derived from the cardinals *one* and *two*. The other ordinals are *third*, *fourth*, *fifth*, *sixth*, *seventh*, *eighth*, *ninth*, *tenth*, *eleventh* and *twelfth*, which show a close relation to the corresponding cardinals. The ordinals of the 'teens are formed by the addition of *th* to the cardinals — *thirteenth*, *fourteenth*, etc. The *th* is used also regularly for all the higher numbers, such as *twentieth*, *thirtieth*, *hundredth*, *thousandth*, etc.

Ordinals also are used as nouns, usually with *the* preceding. For example, "*The first* shall be last."

THE ARTICLE

There are two articles: the indefinite, which may be either *a* or *an*, and the definite *the*.

An is the form used before a word beginning with a vowel sound, while *a* is used before a word beginning with a consonant sound. The variation is simply a matter of convenience for pronunciation, since the meaning of the two words is exactly the same.

A or *an* signifies one of a group, but does this without any precise determination as to which one of the group is thus indicated. For example, "Give me *a* hand."

The definite article, *the*, in accordance with its name, refers to some one person or thing, which is thus specifically singled out for attention. For example: *the heart, the truth, the old days*, etc. The article, whether indefinite or definite, invariably precedes the noun. If one or more adjectives precede a noun, the article precedes these. For example, *a day, the days, the good old days*.

CHAPTER IV

THE VERB

A VERB is that part of speech which asserts something concerning its subject. The subject may be one or more nouns, or pronouns, or any word used as a noun.

Thus in the statement: "The boy eats," the word *eats* is a verb, by means of which a fact is asserted concerning *the boy*, the subject.

There are two classes of verbs, transitive and intransitive. The transitive verb has an object of the action expressed by the verb, while the intransitive verb has no object. Thus, in the statement: "The boy eats candy," the verb *eats* is transitive, since it has an object, the word *candy*. But in the statement, "The boy sleeps," the verb *sleeps* is intransitive, because it has no object.

Verbs are also classified as either principal or auxiliary. A principal verb is complete in itself. In the sentences quoted above, both *eats* and *sleeps* are principal verbs. An auxiliary verb, on the contrary, is not complete

in itself. Its purpose is to define in some particular manner a principal verb with which it is associated. In the assertion, "I shall hope," *shall* is an auxiliary verb.

Verbs are divided also into two classes, regular and irregular, according to the manner in which they change their form. The regular verbs are changed by the addition of *ed* for the past tense and the past participle; while the irregular verbs are changed in various other ways. An example of a regular verb is *turn*, of which the form for the past tense and the past participle is *turned*. An example of an irregular verb is *do*, for which the past tense is *did*, and the past participle is *done*.

It should be noted that only a very small proportion of the verbs in our language are irregular.

A verb is described as being in the active voice when the subject is presented in a state of action. For example, in such an assertion as, "The fire heats the room," the subject, *fire*, is represented in action by the verb *heats*, and the verb is therefore described as being in the active voice. When the subject is presented as being acted upon, the verb is declared to be in the passive voice. Thus,

the idea in the assertion above might be expressed, "The room is heated by the fire." In this case, the verb is in the passive voice, since the subject, *room*, instead of acting is acted upon.

The passive voice is formed always by using various forms of the verb *be*, with the past participle of the particular verb required.

It should be noted that in inverting the form of expression of any idea from the active voice to the passive, the object of the verb in the active voice becomes the subject of the verb in the passive voice. Thus, in the sentence above, the word *room* is the object of the active verb *heats*, but it is the subject of the passive verb *is heated*. The full expression of the thought requires in connection with the passive voice the use of the word *fire*, which was the subject of the active verb, along with a preposition indicating its agency, so that we have: "The room is heated by the fire."

A verb has five different moods — that is to say, five different manners of expression. These are the indicative, subjunctive, potential, imperative and infinitive.

The indicative mood implies reality as to the idea expressed by the verb. "He eats;"

“The house is haunted;” “The boy fell down;” “He will come,” are various illustrations of the indicative mood.

The subjunctive mood does not imply reality, but merely a supposition. “If you fall, you will hurt yourself.” Here, the verb *fall* is in the subjunctive mood. As a rule, the subjunctive mood is indicated by the use of an introductory word, such as *if*, *though*, *unless*, etc.

The potential mood is employed for the expression of desire, need or possibility in connection with the action of the verb. This mood requires the use of auxiliaries with the verb. These are *may*, *can*, *must*, *might*, *could*, *would*, or *should*.

It should be noted also that the words *if*, *though*, etc., used to introduce the subjunctive, may be used also to introduce the potential. “He would be content, if she could love him.”

The imperative mood is employed when the verb expresses an order or a supplication. Such sentences as, “Bless us, O Lord,” or “Be still,” offer examples of the imperative.

The infinitive mood is the use of the verb in its broadest sense, without any limitation.

GRAMMAR MADE EASY

The word *to* preceding the verb is the sign of the infinitive. "To be or not to be." An infinitive may be employed as the subject of another verb, or as the object of another verb, or of a preposition, etc.

The action of a verb in its relation to time is indicated by the tense. The tenses are past, present and future. But, since any action may be either completed or not completed, whatever its time, each tense has two divisions, one of which represents the action, as completed. This form is named the perfect. So we have actually six different tense forms, as follows:

Present	Past	Future
Present perfect	Past perfect	Future perfect

In the present tense the action is at the present time: "He laughs."

In the present perfect, the action is completed in the present: "I have arrived."

In the past tense the action is merely past: "The day was hot."

In the past perfect, the action is not simply past, but is specifically completed at a certain time. *Had* is used as an auxiliary before the verb: "He had decided before she spoke."

GRAMMAR MADE EASY

In the future tense the action is at a future time: "He will die." *Shall* and *will* are the auxiliaries employed with verbs to form the future tense.

In the future-perfect tense, the action is definitely completed at a future time: "He will have fled before they learn of his coming." *Have* is added after *shall* or *will* in forming the future perfect. Thus, in the above sentence, *will have fled* is the future-perfect tense of the verb.

It should be noted that only in the indicative mood are there distinctive forms for all these tenses.

The subjunctive of the verb *to be* has forms for three tenses, the present, present perfect and past. Other verbs have only two subjunctive tenses, the present and present perfect. For other tenses in the subjunctive, the indicative forms are used.

The potential mood has four tenses, the present, present perfect, past and past perfect.

The imperative is limited to a single tense, the present.

The infinitive has two tenses, the present and perfect. For example: *to turn*, *to have turned*.

A verb has person, which may be either

first, second or third, according to the person of its subject. So, too, it may be either singular or plural in number, in agreement with its subject. The sentence, "I love," has the verb first person, singular number. In "They love," the verb is third person, plural number.

Fortunately for the student, there are almost no changes in the form of the verb to indicate person and number. The verb *to be* is the only one having a distinct form for the first person, singular, *am*. There are also other special forms for this verb, and a few other verbs show variations.

But in almost all verbs the only changes are in terminations for the second and third persons singular, usually *st* and *s* respectively. Thus, in the conjugation of the verb *to love* we have:

I love	we love
thou lovest	you love
he loves	they love

This subject will be treated in detail later on.

The student should note that the verb must always agree with its subject in person and number.

THE PARTICIPLE

A participle is a form of the verb, which has the properties of a verb and also those of an adjective or noun. The participle is either present or past. The form for the present has the termination *ing*, and denotes action at the present time. Thus, *giving* is the present participle of the verb *to give*.

The past participle refers to action begun or completed in the past. Its form varies somewhat, but usually it has the ending *ed*. Thus, the past participle of *to give* is *given*, but the ending *ed* appears in the great majority of the past participles, such as *loved*, *learned*, *kissed*, *played*, etc.

By the use of auxiliaries the two forms of the participles are multiplied to make six, three for each of the two voices. These auxiliaries are *having*, *being*, and *having been*. Thus for the active voice we have three participles in this manner:

Present	Past	Perfect
giving	given	having given

And for the passive three again:

Present	Past	Perfect
being given	given	having been given

GRAMMAR MADE EASY

ACTIVE VOICE

The complete statement of all the various forms of a verb is called its conjugation. This includes voice, mood, tense, person and number.

For the active voice, the conjugation is as follows for a regular verb:

INFINITIVE

to learn

Indicative Mood

Present Tense

Singular

Plural

First person:	I learn	we learn
Second "	thou learnest	you learn
Third "	he learns	they learn

Past Tense

Singular

Plural

First person:	I learned	we learned
Second "	thou learnedst	you learned
Third "	he learned	they learned

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Subjunctive Mood

Present Tense

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
First person:	if I learn	if we learn
Second "	if thou learn	if you learn
Third "	if he learn	if they learn

Imperative Mood

Present Tense

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
Second person:	learn thou	learn you

Participles

Present	Past
learning	learned

The few forms given above comprise all the changes in the regular verb. They emphasize the splendid simplicity of the English verb. In other languages, the conjugation of the verb lays on the student a task of enormous difficulty.

AUXILIARY VERBS

The verb *to have* must be given first place, because it is a component in the various forms of other auxiliaries.

Indicative Mood

Present Tense

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
First person:	I have	we have
Second "	thou hast	you have
Third "	he has	they have

Past Tense

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
First person:	I had	we had
Second "	thou hadst	you had
Third "	he had	they had

Subjunctive Mood

Present Tense

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
First person:	if I have	if we have
Second "	if thou have	if you have
Third "	if he have	if they have

Past Tense

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
First person:	if I had	if we had
Second "	if thou had	if you had
Third "	if he had	if they had

Have is used as an auxiliary in connection with the past participle of a verb to form the present perfect or the past perfect of such verb. For example:

Indicative Mood

Present-perfect Tense

Singular

First person:	I have learned
Second "	thou hast learned
Third "	he has learned

Plural

First person:	we have learned
Second "	you have learned
Third "	they have learned

Past-perfect Tense

Singular

First person:	I had learned
Second "	thou hadst learned
Third "	he had learned

Plural

First person:	we had learned
Second "	you had learned
Third "	they had learned

The like use of *have* gives the form for the perfect infinitive, for example, *to have learned*, and for the perfect participle, *having learned*.

The two auxiliaries of the future tense are *shall* and *will*. These are used in connection with a verb to indicate future action.

Should and *would* are used as auxiliaries in the potential mood.

The word *shall*, in its origin, contains the idea of obligation, while the word *will* expresses merely purpose. In usage, however, the first significance has been greatly modified in connection with both words, so that now there is some degree of confusion concerning them. For the formation of the future, considered merely as a matter of time, *shall* is employed as the auxiliary for the first person, both singular and plural, while *will* (*wilt*) is used for the second and third persons in both numbers. But when it is desired to emphasize purpose in the future action, the usage is exactly reversed. *Will* is then the auxiliary for the first person; while *shall* (*shalt*) is used for the second and third persons in both numbers.

Thus, we have the forms for the simple future action as follows:

X Future Tense

Singular

First person:	I shall learn
Second "	thou wilt learn
Third "	he will learn

Plural

First person:	we shall learn
Second "	you will learn
Third "	they will learn

Where the future denotes resolve, the forms are:

Future Tense

Singular

First person:	I will learn
Second "	thou shalt learn
Third "	he shall learn

Plural

First person:	we will learn
Second "	you shall learn
Third "	they shall learn

The same distinctions are observed as to the use of *shall* and *will* when joined with

have and the past participle of a verb for the formation of the future perfect.

Thus, we have:

Future-perfect Tense

Singular

First person:	I shall have learned
Second "	thou wilt have learned
Third "	he will have learned

Plural

First person:	we shall have learned
Second "	you will have learned
Third "	they will have learned

And for the purposeful statement:

Future-perfect Tense

Singular

First person:	I will have learned
Second "	thou shalt have learned
Third "	he shall have learned

Plural

First person:	we will have learned
Second "	you shall have learned
Third "	they shall have earned

GRAMMAR MADE EASY

It is to be observed that each future and future-perfect tense is employed in the indicative mood alone.

The distinctive auxiliaries for the potential mood are *may*, *can* and *must*, but *should* and *would* are also employed for this mood.

The word *may* carries with it always a suggestion of possibility, and it is of frequent use in supplications. The form of its past tense is *might*. It is employed as follows:

Indicative Mood

Present Tense

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
First person:	I may	we may
Second "	thou mayst	you may
Third "	he may	they may

Past Tense

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
First person:	I might	we might
Second "	thou mightst	you might
Third "	he might	they might

Can, also, has only two forms: *can* for the present, and *could* for the past.

GRAMMAR MADE EASY

Indicative Mood

Present Tense

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
First person:	I can	we can
Second "	thou canst	you can
Third "	he can	they can

Past Tense

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
First person:	I could	we could
Second "	thou couldst	you could
Third "	he could	they could

Must is remarkable among the auxiliaries from the fact that it has not a single change of form. Even the second person singular shows no change in the ending. This, of course, is due to the ending in *st*, which supplies the place of the *st* that would otherwise be added.

Indicative Mood

Present Tense

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
First person:	I must	we must
Second "	thou must	you must
Third "	he must	they must

GRAMMAR MADE EASY

The auxiliary *do* is employed in the indicative present and past, in the subjunctive present, and in the imperative.

Indicative Mood

Present Tense

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
First person:	I do	we do
Second "	thou dost	you do
Third "	he does	they do

Past Tense

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
First person:	I did	we did
Second "	thou didst	you did
Third "	he did	they did

Subjunctive Mood

Present Tense

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
First person:	if I do	if we do
Second "	if thou do	if you do
Third "	if he do	if they do

Imperative Mood

Present Tense

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
Second person:	do thou	do you

GRAMMAR MADE EASY

The chief uses of *do* as an auxiliary are to give additional force to an assertion, and to serve as a convenient method in the phrasing of interrogations.

The most irregular of the auxiliary verbs is *to be*. Luckily, however, we are so familiar with the various changes in this verb that the grammatical forms present no difficulty.

Indicative Mood

Present Tense

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
First person:	I am	we are
Second "	thou art	you are
Third "	he is	they are

Present-perfect Tense

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
First person:	I have been	we have been
Second "	thou hast been	you have been
Third "	he has been	they have been

Past Tense

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
First person:	I was	we were
Second "	thou wast	you were
Third "	he was	they were

Past-perfect Tense

Singular

First person:	I had been
Second "	thou hadst been
Third "	he had been

Plural

First person:	we had been
Second "	you had been
Third "	they had been

Future Tense

Singular

Plural

First person:	I shall be	we shall be
Second "	thou wilt be	you will be
Third "	he will be	they will be

Future-perfect Tense

Singular

First person:	I shall have been
Second "	thou wilt have been
Third "	he will have been

Plural

First person:	we shall have been
Second "	you will have been
Third "	they will have been

Subjunctive Mood

Present Tense

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
First person:	if I be	if we be
Second "	if thou be	if you be
Third "	if he be	if they be

Present-perfect Tense

Singular

First person:	if I have been
Second "	if thou have been
Third "	if he have been

Plural

First person:	if we have been
Second "	if you have been
Third "	if they have been

Past Tense

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
First person:	if I were	if we were
Second "	if thou wert	if you were
Third "	if he were	if they were

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Past-perfect Tense

Singular

First person:	if I had been
Second "	if thou hadst been
Third "	if he had been

Plural

First person:	if we had been
Second "	if you had been
Third "	if they had been

Potential Mood

Present Tense

Singular

Plural

First person:	I may be	we may be
Second "	thou mayst be	you may be
Third "	he may be	they may be

Present-perfect Tense

Singular

First person:	I may have been
Second "	thou mayst have been
Third "	he may have been

Plural

First person:	we may have been
Second "	you may have been
Third "	they may have been

Past Tense

Singular

First person:	I might be
Second "	thou mightst be
Third "	he might be

Plural

First person:	we might be
Second "	you might be
Third "	they might be

Past-perfect Tense

Singular

First person:	I might have been
Second "	thou mightst have been
Third "	he might have been

Plural

First person:	we might have been
Second "	you might have been
Third "	they might have been

Imperative Mood

Present Tense

Singular

Plural

Second person:	be thou	be you
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Infinitive Mood

Present Tense

to be

Perfect Tense

to have been

Participles

Present Tense

being

Past Tense

been

Perfect Tense

having been

The verb *to be*, apart from its employment as a principal verb, serves as an auxiliary in the formation of the passive voice. For this purpose, its various forms are associated with the past participle of another verb, and by such construction the subject of the verb is shown to be actually the object of the action expressed. The subject, instead of being

active, is now passive, and this fact explains and justifies the name of the voice.

It should be noted also that *to be* is frequently used with the present participle of some other verb in order to denote continued action. For example, "I am walking"; "He was studying"; "They will be dancing."

THE PASSIVE VOICE

The passive voice is formed by the use of the auxiliary *to be* and the past participle of any verb. The student will note that in each mood and tense the participle remains the same, and the various changes in form are entirely through the auxiliary.

Indicative Mood

Present Tense

Singular

First person:	I am trained
Second "	thou art trained
Third "	he is trained

Plural

First person:	we are trained
Second "	you are trained
Third "	they are trained

Present-perfect Tense

Singular

First person:	I have been trained
Second "	thou hast been trained
Third "	he has been trained

Plural

First person:	we have been trained
Second "	you have been trained
Third "	they have been trained

Past Tense

Singular

First person:	I was trained
Second "	thou wast trained
Third "	he was trained

Plural

First person:	we were trained
Second "	you were trained
Third "	they were trained

Past-perfect Tense

Singular

First person:	I had been trained
Second "	thou hadst been trained
Third "	he had been trained

Plural

First person:	we had been trained
Second "	you had been trained
Third "	they had been trained

Future Tense

Singular

First person:	I shall be trained
Second "	thou wilt be trained
Third "	he will be trained

Plural

First person:	we shall be trained
Second "	you will be trained
Third "	they will be trained

Future-perfect Tense

Singular

First person:	I shall have been trained
Second "	thou wilt have been trained
Third "	he will have been trained

Plural

First person:	we shall have been trained
Second "	you will have been trained
Third "	they will have been trained

Subjunctive Mood.

Present Tense

Singular

First person:	if I be trained
Second "	if thou be trained
Third "	if he be trained

Plural

First person:	if we be trained
Second "	if you be trained
Third "	if they be trained

Present-perfect Tense

Singular

First person:	if I have been trained
Second "	if thou have been trained
Third "	if he have been trained

Plural

First person:	if we have been trained
Second "	if you have been trained
Third "	if they have been trained

Past Tense

Singular

First person:	if I were trained
Second "	if thou wert trained
Third "	if he were trained

GRAMMAR MADE EASY

Plural

First person:	if we were trained
Second "	if you were trained
Third "	if they were trained

Past-perfect Tense

Singular

First person:	if I had been trained
Second "	if thou hadst been trained
Third "	if he had been trained

Plural

First person:	if we had been trained
Second "	if you had been trained
Third "	if they had been trained

Potential Mood

Present Tense

Singular

First person:	I may be trained
Second "	thou mayst be trained
Third "	he may be trained

Plural

First person:	we may be trained
Second "	you may be trained
Third "	they may be trained

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Present-perfect Tense

Singular

First person:	I may have been trained
Second "	thou mayst have been trained
Third "	he may have been trained

Plural

First person:	we may have been trained
Second "	you may have been trained
Third "	they may have been trained

Past Tense

Singular

First person:	I might be trained
Second "	thou mightst be trained
Third "	he might be trained

Plural

First person:	we might be trained
Second "	you might be trained
Third "	they might be trained

Past-perfect Tense

Singular

First person:	I might have been trained
Second "	thou mightst have been trained
Third "	he might have been trained

GRAMMAR MADE EASY

Plural

First person:	we might have been trained
Second "	you might have been trained
Third "	they might have been trained

Imperative Mood

Present Tense

Singular

Second person: be thou trained

Plural

Second person: be you trained

Infinitive Mood

Present Tense

to be trained

Perfect Tense

to have been trained

Participles

Present Tense

being trained

Past Tense

trained

Perfect Tense

having been trained

GRAMMAR MADE EASY

IRREGULAR VERBS

Besides those regular verbs in which the past tense and past participle are formed by adding the termination *ed*, such as *to train*, with its past tense and past participle *trained*, there are a certain number of verbs that show variations from this use. Luckily, the number of them is very small, compared with the whole number of verbs in the language. The total is not sufficient to present any serious obstacle to the student. Such verbs are of Saxon origin, and have retained their ancient forms. Some of them lack parts of their conjugation, while others, termed redundant verbs, have alternative forms. It is necessary that the student should familiarize himself thoroughly with the list of irregular verbs. He will find, however, that the task is not too difficult, since a considerable proportion of the list is already known to him as a matter of course from the usages of every-day speech.

Irregular Verbs

Present	Past	Past Participle
arise	arose	arisen
awake	awoke	awoke

GRAMMAR MADE EASY

Present	Past	Past Participle
	awakened	awakened
bear	bore	borne
	bare	
bear (carry)	bore	borne
beat	beat	beaten
		beat
become	became	become
befall	befell	befallen
beget	begot	begotten
begin	began	begun
	begun	
behold	beheld	beheld
bend	bent	bent
	bended	bended
bereave	bereft	bereft
	bereaved	bereaved
beseech	besought	besought
bet	bet	bet
	betted	betted
bid	bid	bid
	bade	bidden
bind	bound	bound
		bounden
bite	bit	bitten
		bit

GRAMMAR MADE EASY

Present	Past	Past Participle
bleed	bled	bled
blend	blent blended	blent blended
bless	blest blessed	blest blessed
blow	blew	blown
break	broke break	broke broken
breed	bred	bred
bring	brought	brought
build	built builded	built builded
burn	burnt burned	burnt burned
burst	burst	burst
buy	bought	bought
can	could	
cast	cast	cast
catch	caught	caught
choose	chose	chosen
cleave	clave cleaved	cleaved
cleave (split)	cleft clove clave	cleft cloven cleaved

GRAMMAR MADE EASY

Present	Past	Past Participle
cling	clung	clung
clothe	clad	clad
	clothed	clothed
come	came	come
cost	cost	cost
creep	crept	crept
crow	crew	crowed
	crowed	
cut	cut	cut
dare	durst	dared
	dared	
deal	dealt	dealt
dig	dug	dug
	digged	digged
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
dream	dreamt	dreamt
	dreamed	dreamed
dress	drest	drest
	dressed	dressed
drink	drank	drunk
		drunken
drive	drove	driven
dwell	dwelt	dwelt
	dwelled	dwelled

GRAMMAR MADE EASY

Present	Past	Past Participle
eat	ate	eaten
	eat	
fall	fell	fallen
feed	fed	fed
feel	felt	felt
fight	fought	fought
find	found	found
flee	fled	fled
fling	flung	flung
fly	flew	flown
forbear	forbore	forborne
forbid	forbade	forbidden
		forbid
forget	forgot	forgotten
		forgot
forsake	forsook	forsaken
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	got
		gotten
gild	gilt	gilt
	gilded	gilded
gird	girt	girt
	girded	girded
give	gave	given
go	went	gone

GRAMMAR MADE EASY

Present	Past	Past Participle
grind	ground	ground
grow	grew	grown
hang	hung	hung
	hanged	hanged
have	had	had
heave	hove	hove
	heaved	heaved
hew	hewed	hewn
		hewed
hide	hid	hidden
hit	hit	hit
hold	held	held
		holden
hurt	hurt	hurt
keep	kept	kept
kneel	knelt	knelt
	kneeled	kneeled
knit	knit	knit
	knitted	knitted
know	knew	known
lade	laded	laden
		laded
lay	laid	laid
lead	led	led
lean	leant	leant

GRAMMAR MADE EASY

Present	Past	Past Participle
	leaned	leaned
leap	leapt	leapt
	leaped	leaped
learn	learnt	learnt
	learned	learned
leave	left	left
lend	lent	lent
let	let	let
lie	lay	lain
light	lit	lit
	lighted	lighted
lose	lost	lost
make	made	made
may	might	
mean	meant	meant
meet	met	met
mow	mowed	mown
		mowed
must		
ought		
pass	past	past
	passed	passed
pay	paid	paid
plead	plead	plead
	pleaded	pleaded

GRAMMAR MADE EASY

Present	Past	Past Participle
put	put	put
quit	quit	quit
	quitted	quitted
	quoth	
read	read	read
rend	rent	rent
	rended	rended
rid	rid	rid
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang	rung
	rung	
rise	rose	risen
rive	rived	riven
		rived
run	ran	run
saw	sawed	sawn
		sawed
say	said	said
see	saw	seen
seek	sought	sought
sell	sold	sold
send	sent	sent
set	set	set
shake	shook	shaken
shall	should	

GRAMMAR MADE EASY

Present	Past	Past Participle
shape	shaped	shapen shaped
shave	shaved	shaven shaved
shear	shore sheared	shorn sheared
shed	shed	shed
shine	shone shined	shone shined
shoe	shod	shod
shoot	shot	shot
show	showed	shown showed
shred	shred shredded	shred shredded
shrink	shrank shrunk	shrunk shrunken
shut	shut	shut
sing	sang sung	sung
sink	sank sunk	sunk
sit	sat	sat
slay	slew	slain
slide	slid	slid

GRAMMAR MADE EASY

Present	Past	Past Participle
		slidden
sling	slung	slung
slink	slunk	slunk
slit	slit	slit
	slitted	slitted
smell	smelt	smelt
	smelled	smelled
smite	smote	smitten
		smit
sow	sowed	sown
		sowed
speak	spoke	spoken
speed	sped	sped
spell	spelt	spelt
	spelled	spelled
spend	spent	spent
spill	spilt	spilt
	spilled	spilled
spin	spun	spun
	span	
spit	spat	spit
split	split	split
spoil	spoilt	spoilt
	spoiled	spoiled
spread	spread	spread

GRAMMAR MADE EASY

Present	Past	Past Participle
spring	sprang sprung	sprang
stand	stood	stood
stave	stove staved	stove stave
stay	staid stayed	staid stayed
steal	stole	stolen
stick	stuck	stuck
sting	stung	stung
stink	stunk stank	stunk
strew	strewed	strewn strewed
stride	strode	stridden
strike	struck	struck stricken
string	strung	strung
strive	strove	striven
swear	swore sware	sworn
sweat	sweat sweated	sweat sweated
sweep	swept	swept
swell	swelled	swollen

GRAMMAR MADE EASY

Present	Past	Past Participle
		swelled
swim	swam	swum
	swum	
swing	swung	swung
take	took	taken
teach	taught	taught
tear	tore	torn
tell	told	told
think	thought	thought
thrive	throve	thriven
	thrived	thrived
throw	threw	thrown
thrust	thrust	thrust
tread	trod	trodden
		trod
wake	woke	woke
	waked	waked
wear	wore	worn
weave	wove	woven
	weaved	weaved
wed	wed	wed
weep	wept	wept
wet	wet	wet
	wetted	wetted
whet	whet	whet

GRAMMAR MADE EASY

Present	Past	Past Participle
	whetted	whetted
will	would	
win	won	won
wind	wound	wound
wit	wist	
wot		
work	wrought	wrought
	worked	worked
wring	wrung	wrung
write	wrote	written

THE PARTICIPLE

Much diversity of opinion exists among grammarians concerning the right treatment of the participle in its various aspects. As a matter of fact, however, there should be no difficulty in this connection. The participle is one of the parts of a verb. As such, it may have an object, or it may be modified by an adverb. But a participle, whether present or past, may take on the nature of an adjective, or it may serve as a noun. Thus, *flying*, is the present participle of the verb *to fly*. In a phrase such as *the flying squadron*, this participle takes on the nature of an adjective

qualifying the noun *squadron*. Were the phrase to read, *the squadron flying slowly*, the participle would still retain its adjectival character, but at the same time, its essentially verbal nature would permit its modification by the adverb *slowly*. In such a sentence as, "The flying continued for hours," the participle serves as a noun. Here, it is the subject of a verb. It might be used also as the object of a verb or of a preposition. To understand the correct usage of the participle, it is sufficient to remember its three-fold aspect, as verb, adjective and noun. Of these three phases, the verbal is the original and permanent, while the others appear only in certain relations.

CHAPTER V

THE ADVERB

AN adverb is a word that modifies a verb, adjective, or another adverb. For example, in the sentence, "The boy cried loudly," the word *loudly* is an adverb, modifying the verb *cried*. If the sentence be made to read, "The boy cried *very loudly*," the word *very* is also an adverb, and modifies the adverb *loudly*.

There are six classes of adverbs: of place, time, manner, cause, number and degree.

An adverb of place has to do with the matter of location. Examples of such adverbs are: *above, after, anywhere, back, behind, below, down, everywhere, first, forth, forward, hence, here, nowhere, somewhere, thence, there, up, whence, where*, and the like.

Adverbs of time are sufficiently defined when thus designated. Examples of such adverbs are: *again, ago, always, frequently, immediately, never, now, often, sometimes, soon, when, until*, and the like.

Adverbs of manner serve to define action. Examples of such adverbs are: *badly, certainly, easily, how, ill, no, not, so, still, surely, thus, well, yes.*

Adverbs of cause have to do with the reason for an action. Examples of such adverbs are: *consequently, hence, therefore, wherefore, why, and the like.*

Adverbs of number are derived from the ordinals by use of the suffix *ly*. The suffix is not required in the case of the word *first*, since this itself is an adverb. The suffix appears, however, with all the other ordinals, such as *secondly, thirdly, fourthly, fifthly*, and so on.

Adverbs of degree define the intensity of an action. Examples of such adverbs are: *almost, altogether, chiefly, enough, extremely, much, more, most, nearly, only, partly, scarcely, somewhat, too, and the like.*

Adverbs are grouped also according to their use in interrogation. These interrogative adverbs are employed in asking questions. *How, when, whence, where, whether, and why* are examples of this use.

When an adverb joins a principal clause to a dependent clause, it is called a relative or conjunctive adverb. In this class are in-

cluded such words as: *how, now, since, so, when, whence, where, why* and the like.

Adverbs, to a somewhat limited extent, may be compared like adjectives. *More* and *most*, *less* and *least*, are ordinarily used in such comparison. Only a small number of adverbs show their degree by adding *er* or *est*. The most familiar among these that are thus compared by a suffix are: *deep, early, fast, hard, long, often, quick* and *soon*.

A very few adverbs have irregular forms of comparison. *Worse* is the comparative of either *badly* or *ill*, while *worst* is the superlative. *Far* has two forms of the comparative, *farther* and *further*, and the corresponding two for the superlative, *fartherest* and *furtherest*. *Late* has a regular comparative and superlative, but it also has an alternate form for the superlative, *last*. *Little* has its comparative *less*, and its superlative *least*. *Much* has *more* for the comparative, *most* for the superlative. *Near* is compared regularly with the forms *nearer* and *nearest*, but it has also a variant in the superlative, *next*. The adverb *well* has *better* and *best* for its comparative and superlative.

It should be noted that adverbs are often

used quite independently. The *well* so often heard at the beginning of a sentence is an adverb, which has no relation whatsoever with the words following. Thus used, it actually has the quality of an interjection. *Yes* and *no* are similarly independent adverbs.

CHAPTER VI

THE PREPOSITION

A PREPOSITION is a word that governs another word or phrase, called its object, by determining a relation with some antecedent word or phrase. Thus, in the sentence, "The house stood by the river," the word *by* is a preposition, which has for its object the word *river*, and it determines the relationship between *the river* and *the house*. Here, the word *house* is the antecedent of the preposition.

Both the antecedent and the object of the preposition may be a noun, a pronoun, an adjective, a verb, an adverb, or a phrase. If the word governed by the preposition is a noun or a pronoun, it is usually described as being in the objective case.

Often two or more prepositions may be used in one phrase, in such intimate association that the whole phrase may be regarded as a compound preposition. Examples of such usage are afforded by the phrases, *because of*, *in spite of*, *on account of*, and the like.

Participles often serve as convenient prepositions with an object following. Such participles are employed rather independently, unconnected with a subject. The word *excepting* affords a familiar illustration of this use.

Prepositions are sometimes joined together with a single object following. For example, "He looked *out over* the sea."

Often, also, the preposition assumes an adverbial relation to a verb, without an object of its own. "He stood *up*."

The passive voice commonly retains, in connection with the verb, the preposition which in the active voice would govern the noun. Thus, where in the active voice we would have such a sentence as, "The fellow scowled at him," if the thought were expressed in the passive voice, the sentence would run, "He was scowled *at* by the fellow." The *at*, which in the first sentence governed the pronoun *him*, is retained in the second sentence, though it no longer has an object.

CHAPTER VII

THE CONJUNCTION

A CONJUNCTION is a word connecting parts of a sentence.

The following list contains the conjunctions most commonly employed:

also	only
although	or
and	save
as	since
because	so
both	still
but	than
either	that
except	then
for	therefore
however	through
if	unless
lest	what
neither	when
nevertheless	whereas
nor	whereat
notwithstanding	whereby

wherefore	whether
wherein	while
whereof	without
whereupon	yet
wherever	

Conjunctions are called coördinate when they connect equal parts of a sentence. They are called subordinate when they join an inferior part of a sentence to a superior part.

CHAPTER VIII

THE INTERJECTION

AN interjection is a word used independently — usually either to express emotion or to arrest attention.

Ab and *bello* are familiar interjections. Such an exclamatory word may stand alone, and of itself form a complete sentence; or it may be interjected into a sentence, where it has no grammatical relation to the other parts.

CHAPTER IX

THE SENTENCE

A SENTENCE is a statement that is complete in itself.

When a sentence is written, its first word always begins with a capital letter, and its end is indicated by a full stop — a period, an exclamation mark, or a question mark.

A sentence may be very long and complex, or very short and simple. An example of the very simplest sort is afforded by the sentences containing only a single word. The exclamation "Ha!" forms such a sentence, or the imperative verb, "Go!"

Usually the sentence contains a noun or pronoun and a verb. The following are examples of simple sentences: "The boy ran"; "He eats."

The noun or pronoun, or a phrase in place of either, is termed the subject, while the verb is termed the predicate. Either the subject or the predicate may have modifiers. Thus, in the sentence, "The fat man eats heartily,"

the noun *man* is qualified by the adjective, *fat*, and the verb *eats* is modified by the adverb *heartily*.

The sentence may be made up of coördinate parts, connected by a conjunction. Such coördinate parts are called clauses, and each of them must contain a subject and predicate. Thus, in the sentence, "Man proposes, but God disposes," there are two clauses, "Man proposes," and "God disposes," which are connected by the conjunction *but*. Such clauses are also described as independent, because each is really a complete sentence in itself.

A dependent clause is one that derives its significance from a principal clause with which it is associated in the sentence. In the sentence, "We eat when we are hungry," "when we are hungry" is a dependent clause. Such a dependent clause must always contain a subject and predicate of its own.

Any group of words in the sentence that does not contain a subject and predicate, is called a phrase. Such phrases may be related to either the subject or the predicate of a sentence. For example, in the sentence, "We honor the man of such splendid virtues,"

the group of words "of such splendid virtues," is a phrase, which has the force of an adjective qualifying the noun *man*. Similarly, in the sentence, "The troops fought with the utmost valor," the group of words, "with the utmost valor," is a phrase that serves as an adverbial modifier of the verb *fought*.

CHAPTER X

PARSING

IN parsing a word, we examine it and describe its properties and its relationship to the sentence in which it is used. If we understand the characteristics of the various parts of speech as they have already been defined, the task is not at all difficult. The principal thing to remember is that each sentence ordinarily contains a subject and a predicate.

In the sentence, "The boy runs," the subject is *boy*, the predicate is *runs*. The subject *boy* is a noun, masculine gender, third person, singular number, nominative case. We know that it is in the nominative case because it is the subject of the verb *runs*. The noun is qualified by the definite article *the*.

The predicate *runs* is an intransitive verb in the indicative mood, present tense, third person, and singular number. It agrees in person and number with its subject *boy*.

If the sentence were expanded to read, "The bad boy runs fast," the parsing would remain exactly the same for the subject and the predicate, but there would be added the explanation that *bad* is an adjective qualifying the noun *boy*, and that *fast* is an adverb modifying the verb *runs*. -

In a complex sentence, there is a principal clause with a subject and predicate, and also a subordinate clause, which is, in fact, a dependent sentence with its own subject and predicate. Grammarians use special terms to distinguish the subject and predicate of the principal clause in a sentence, such as the essential or the grammatical or the logical, and then employ other designations for the subject and predicate of a subordinate clause. Such multiplying of terms is, however, both unnecessary and confusing. It is enough to call the subject and the predicate of the principal clause *the* subject and *the* predicate respectively of the sentence, and to distinguish the subject and predicate of a dependent sentence by calling them respectively the subject and the predicate of the subordinate clause.

The student should note that the subject

of a sentence or of a subordinate clause may be either one noun or more than one, or it may be a single pronoun, or more than one pronoun, or it may be a combination of nouns and pronouns, or a combination of any words used as nouns, such as the infinitive form of the verb, or a participle, or an adjective. Thus, in the sentence "Men, women and children went hungry," *men, women and children* is the subject of the verb *went*. This association of three nouns as the one subject of the verb is typical of all cases where more than one word is made the subject of a sentence. For example, as to pronouns, in the sentence, "You and I will go," *you* and *I* together make the subject of the verb *will go*, just as the pronoun *we* alone would make the subject. Thus, the subject of the sentence is the pronouns *you* and *I*. Such coördinate nouns, or pronouns, or other words joined in making the subject of a sentence, are often called the compound subject.

The same principle governs the subject of a subordinate clause, which may be one word, or any number of coördinated words.

Just as the subject of the sentence may be compound, so may the predicate be com-

pound. In the sentence, "Man eats, sleeps, works and plays," the predicate is made up of the four verbs, *eats*, *sleeps*, *works* and *plays*.

Grammarians often insist that the verb alone forms the predicate in any sentence and name a word or phrase associated with the verb the complementary predicate. It is simpler, however, to designate the whole as the predicate, and then to specify as to the verbal predicate and the remaining part, whatever its character, as, for example, the adjectival.

The additional part of the predicate associated with the verb may be of various sorts, according to the nature of the words employed. A noun in the nominative case may thus be used, or an adjective, or the object of a transitive verb, or a phrase. "He is a man," illustrates the use of a nominative noun in the predicate. "The man is good," has an adjectival predicate, since the word *good* is an adjective following the verb *is*, making the whole predicate *is good*. "The boy threw stones," shows the object of a transitive verb completing the predicate. Here, the meaning of the verbal predicate is filled out by using the object of the verb, *stones*.

Grammarians have termed the various forms of the verb *to be*, when used as a predicate verb, the copula, since it joins the subject and an adjectival or other predicate part following it. The term is unnecessary and it is sufficient to describe the forms of *to be* as merely verbal predicates.

Part II

STUDY OF DETAILS

CHAPTER I

MASCULINE AND FEMININE FORMS

WHILE it is true that the gender of English nouns depends usually on the meaning of the word, and not on the form, there are a few words derived from foreign languages which retain the distinctive endings for the gender. The following list gives the two forms for the most familiar among such nouns.

<i>Masculine</i>	<i>Feminine</i>
abbot	abbess
actor	actress
administrator	administratrix
adventurer	adventuress
author	authoress
baron	baroness
benefactor	benefactress
count	countess
duke	duchess
emperor	empress
enchanter	enchantress
executor	executrix
governor	governess

GRAMMAR MADE EASY

<i>Masculine</i>	<i>Feminine</i>
hero	heroine
host	hostess
hunter	huntress
Jew	Jewess
lion	lioness
marquis	marchioness
master	mistress
murderer	murderess
poet	poetess
prophet	prophetess
protector	protectress
testator	testatrix
tiger	tigress
traitor	traitress

While the words in the above list have the distinctive forms for gender there indicated, the tendency of the present day is toward doing away with the different endings even for this small number of words, and employing the masculine form whether the person referred to be a man or a woman. For example, many writers and speakers of to-day in their references to a woman prefer the terms *poet* and *author*, rather than *poetess* and *authoress*.

CHAPTER II

DISTINCTIVE FEATURES

Antecedent Lacking

THE pronoun *it* is very commonly employed as the subject of a verb without any antecedent. It thus actually serves as a sort of indefinite noun. This use of *it* is familiar to every one as a convenience in references to the weather. In such sentences as: "It rains," "It snows," and the like, the pronoun has no real antecedent.

It should be noted also that the pronoun *what* never has an antecedent. In such a sentence as, "See what you have done," the relative pronoun *what* is in effect a conveniently brief substitute for *that which*. Thus in a sense, *what* contains within itself its own antecedent; for, if the sentence were made to read, "See that which you have done," the pronoun *which* would have for its antecedent the pronoun *that*.

The Possessive

The possessive pronouns *mine* and *thine* were formerly used instead of *my* and *thy* before any word beginning with a vowel or with a silent *h*. The use of the forms *mine* and *thine* is now commonly limited to a poetical style. The old use is illustrated throughout the Bible.

In the Bible, we find also another usage that has become obsolete. This is the employment of *ye* as the nominative plural of the pronoun for the second person. *You* was reserved as the form only for the objective case. The modern practise is to employ *you* equally for both cases. *Ye* is no longer written except occasionally in poetry.

Alternate forms of the possessive pronouns may be used without a noun. These are *mine*, *thine*, *our*, *hers*, and *theirs*. The regular possessive forms *his* and *its* are similarly used. Such a pronoun is treated exactly as if it were a noun. For example: "The money is mine; it will never be yours." "Theirs was not a happy lot; hers was far better."

A double possessive is common in our language. Thus, we say, "He is a friend of

ours," or "He is a friend of Susan's," or the like. Such a peculiarity in construction is called an idiom. It is a habit of our speech and, like many another, must be accepted as a fact that requires neither explanation nor criticism.

Another peculiarity of the idiomatic sort is associated with the word *else*. When this adjective is employed in connection with certain pronouns, such as *any one*, *every one*, *no one*, *some one*, and the like, the possessive case is indicated by writing the apostrophe and *s* as a suffix to *else*, instead of adding these signs of possession to the pronoun itself. Thus, we say *some one else's*, or *any one else's*, instead of *some one's else*, or *any one's else*. Some grammarians have insisted that the latter form must be used. Such insistence has been wholly in vain. Custom makes grammar; grammar never makes custom.

Each and Other

The student should impress upon himself that the pronouns *each* and *other*, when used reciprocally, must be applied only in reference to two individuals, never when more than two are concerned. When we read such a

sentence as the following, "They loved each other," we have a right to understand that the lovers were two, no more. *One* and *another* are to be employed in every case where the individuals referred to by the pronouns exceed two in number. "They loved one another," would be the correct form when the persons spoken of numbered more than two, whether three or a thousand. The student should be at pains to acquire the proper usage in this respect, and he must guard against being led astray by the errors he may see or hear, which are very common.

Adjectives not Comparable

Certain adjectives, as well as the associated adverbs, are, from their very nature, incapable of comparison. This fact is illustrated by many words having a geometrical significance, such as *perpendicular*, *circular*, *square*, *spherical*, and the like. It is proper to speak of a *square*, but anything is *square*, or it is not *square*. It cannot be *squarer*, or *less square*, by reason of the meaning of the word. It is, however, proper to describe one object as *more nearly square* than another, or *less nearly square*. A considerable number of other ad-

jectives also are likewise denied comparison by their character. Examples of this class are afforded by such words as: *full*, *complete*, *perfect*, and the like. Thus, if a thing be *perfect*, it can be neither *more* nor *less* than *perfect*.

Grammarians insist that this rule must be observed with the greatest strictness. Yet, as a practical convenience in speech, we often employ the comparative degrees for such words. The grammarian shudders over the expression, *more complete*. Nevertheless, such a usage has the advantage of expressing the thought briefly and clearly. The student should familiarize himself with the principle involved, so that his choice in the matter will be deliberately made.

Better and Best

The student should note that in the comparative degree only two objects or two groups of objects are concerned. So, in speaking of two things, the comparative degree must be used, and never the superlative. We should say always, for example, "This is the *better*," when we wish to indicate the superiority of one object over the other

of two compared. The superlative, *best*, should not be employed in such a case. Yet, it is very commonly used thus, though wrongly. The reason is that the word *best* is at once more emphatic on account of its superlative meaning, and also on account of its crisp brevity as a word.

The student will do well to habituate himself to careful correctness in the degrees of comparison.

The Split Infinitive

It is customarily asserted by the grammarians that an adverb should never be placed between the preposition *to* used as the sign of the infinitive, and the verb to which the *to* belongs. For example, *to gladly go* would be an incorrect form of expression, since in it the adverb *gladly* comes between *to* and *go*.

This particular error is called a split infinitive, and it is much reprobated by the precise. The student should be careful to master the principle involved and to apply it in speaking and writing. It is a fact, notwithstanding, that such splitting of the infinitive sometimes offers a means for exact

expression, where otherwise there might be some ambiguity. For that reason, many authorities not only condone the introduction of the adverb within the infinitive, but even defend it.

Associated Conjunctions

Certain conjunctions are used in pairs, sometimes in series, either in connection with single words, or with phrases or clauses. Such conjunctions are: *although* and *yet*, *as* and *as*, *as* and *so*, *so* and *as*, *both* and *and*, *either* and *or*, *if* and *then*, *neither* and *nor*, *now* and *now*, *whether* and *or*, etc.

The student should take particular care to observe the association of *either* with *or*, and of *neither* with *nor*. *Either* and *or* are to be used only in reference to two objects, and the same is true concerning *neither* and *nor*. A common error is the use of *or*, instead of *nor*, after *neither*. The mistake is emphasized by repeating *or* when more than two objects are concerned. Thus, it is wrong to say, *neither man or woman*, and it is even more emphatically wrong to say, *neither man or woman or child*. Instead of *neither man or woman*, the correct expression would be, *neither man nor*

woman. Instead of, *neither man or woman or child*, the correct expression would be, *no man or woman or child*.

Oh and O

There is some diversity of use concerning the interjections *oh* and *O*. The distinction between the two is actually very simple. The *O* is properly always associated with direct address to some person or thing, that is, with the vocative case, as it was formerly called. Thus, in addressing the Deity, the form is properly, "O Lord."

So, too, the *O* is employed before a pronoun similarly; *O ye of little faith*. It is also applied in connection with things as well as persons, when they are directly addressed: "O Rome, Rome, thou hast been," etc.

Oh, on the contrary, stands as an independent exclamation, and, while *O* has no punctuation following it to separate it from the noun or pronoun with which it is associated, *oh* must be followed by either a comma or an exclamation mark. It should never begin with a capital unless from its position as the first word in a sentence. "Oh, that we two were maying!" "I shall—oh, what's the use?"

It as Subject

An idiom of the language is the use of the pronoun *it*, which of course is singular, as the subject of a verb that is followed by a predicate noun in the plural. For example, we may say quite properly: "It was six days ago"; "It was his operations in stocks that ruined him"; "It was her love-songs that made the poetical fame of Provence enduring."

Grammarians have been inclined to condemn this usage, but their efforts to do away with it have been futile. As a matter of fact, an analysis justifies the practise in these cases, since in some instances the plural noun has actually an adverbial force. Thus, in the sentence, "It was ages ago," the words *ages ago* are equivalent to an adverb. They are used just as might be the adverb *then*. In other instances, the noun in the plural is associated with other words, so that the effect is of a phrase or clause having the force of a singular by reason of unity in the idea expressed. In such a sentence as, "It was these things that I desired," all of the words following the verb *was* unite to express an idea that is essentially singular, although the predicate

noun *things* is plural. The use of *it* as the subject in such sentences is too convenient to be given up, and there can be no real objection to it, since there is no least suggestion of ambiguity in the meaning.

Numeral and Ordinal

A common error is the use of a numeral followed by an ordinal adjective. For example, "The two first men in the line." This should be corrected to read, "The first two men in the line." It is obvious that the first form of the statement contains an error of fact, since only one of the men is *first* in the line, the other of the *two* being second. The student must remember in all similar cases to place the ordinal before the numeral.

It is possible that in some instances the reverse order would not be wrong, strictly speaking. Thus, where a company was marching two abreast, the first two might be designated: *the two first*, since the two men are on a parity. But even here the better form is *the first two*, since it is exactly accurate, and follows the order that is usually imperative.

Only

The student should cultivate particular care as to the position in which he places *only*. This should always modify the word or words immediately preceding it, or immediately following it. It is very frequently misplaced, and any mistake of such a sort causes either an ambiguity as to the meaning, or a positive error in the sense. Thus, for example, in the assertion, "Only good men love righteousness," the meaning is clear. The clearness would be destroyed, were the word *only* misplaced, so as to make the sentence read, "Good men only love righteousness." This might convey the idea of the original statement, but it might equally signify, "Good men love only righteousness." A careful study of this matter will enable the student so always to place the word as to render its application certain. He must not be led astray by the fact that in his reading he will often find *only* in a wrong position. On the contrary, he should practise to attain facility in the correct use by detecting each error, and by mentally shifting the word to its proper position.

Number of the Verb

There is a common tendency to make a mistake in the number of a verb when it is immediately preceded by a noun not its subject, which is of a number different from that subject. Whether this noun be singular or plural, the effect is frequently to determine the number of the verb following it, and thus to cause a distinct grammatical error. For example: "The boy with all his companions were lost on the prairie." Here the error is, of course, in employing a plural verb with a singular subject. The subject is *boy*, and the verb should be *was*. As a matter of fact, however, the phrase, *with all his companions*, very easily leads one astray, since the noun *companions* in the plural immediately precedes the verb. Exactly the same sort of error is likely to result when the subject of the sentence is in the plural, but the noun next to the verb is in the singular. In such case, it seems quite natural to follow the singular noun with a singular verb, forgetting the fact that the subject itself is plural. This error in the construction of a sentence is made repeatedly by persons speaking, and it is found

almost as often in the work of writers. The student would do well to watch alertly for this mistake in conversation or on the printed page. When he has learned to detect the fault readily in others, he will be safeguarded against committing it himself.

The Indirect Object

A number of verbs take not only a direct object, but also what is called an indirect object. This second object is in reality governed by a preposition that is understood, but is not expressed. The preposition is usually either *to* or *for*. The verb that oftenest has two objects in this manner is *to tell*. Thus, we say, "Tell me the truth." In this sentence, the word *truth* is the direct object of the verb *tell*; *me* is the indirect object. The Latin and many other languages have a particular case, the dative, with a distinctive ending for the noun or pronoun, to indicate the omitted preposition. Since we have no dative case in English, such an indirect object is put in the objective case. It is only with a few pronouns that there is any variation from the form of the nominative. In the illustration given, the pronoun *me* is in

the objective case, which has a form different from the nominative case of the same pronoun, *I*. But, if the sentence were to read, "Tell your son the truth," the word *son*, the indirect object of the verb *tell*, would be in the objective case, although the form of the word differs not at all from the nominative. In either of the sentences above, the preposition *to* might be introduced, and the meaning would remain exactly the same: "Tell the truth *to me*"; "Tell the truth *to your son*."

The verb *to give* governs two objects in the same fashion. The verb *to make* also may have both a direct object and an indirect, but with this word the omitted preposition is *for*. For example, "Make me a suit." Here, *me* is the indirect object of the verb *make*, and the omitted preposition is *for*. The sentence might be changed, without altering the sense, to read: "Make a suit for me."

The student will observe that when the preposition *to* or *for* is omitted, the order of the words is changed, and the indirect object of the verb is placed before the direct object. When the preposition is expressed, the prepositional phrase ordinarily follows the object of the verb, though not always, and not necessarily.

The many verbs governing a direct object and an indirect may be distinguished by testing with the prepositions, *to* and *for*. If the sense remains the same when the preposition is used and when it is omitted, as the order of the objects is changed, it is evident that the verb is of this class.

The Cognate Object

Certain verbs that are not properly transitive may take an object, when the meaning is thus emphasized. For example, "He slept the sleep of the righteous"; "He lived a life of infamy." Such an object is sometimes termed the cognate object.

The Idiomatic Objective

One of the most curious idioms in the language is connected with the verb *to give*, and a few other verbs of allied meaning. In this peculiar use, the active form of the verb is changed to the passive; the indirect object is changed into the subject; the direct object is retained in the new sentence, but its position is anomalous. In fact, it defies the ordinary rules of parsing. Let us consider the sentence, "The doctor gave the man a drink."

In common speech, this may be changed about from the active to the passive so that it becomes, "The man was given a drink by the doctor." *Man*, which was the indirect object of the active verb *gave*, in the first sentence, has now become the subject of the passive verb *was given*. Thus far, the change is simple enough. The difficulty comes in the attempt to parse the noun *drink*. It is really outside the rules. For that reason, many grammarians condemn such a use. As a matter of fact, however, the use is too firmly established to be done away with by any such ban. The word *drink* in the sentence might perhaps be described as an idiomatic object. But, actually, this usage shows capitally how our language flourishes and takes its own forms idiomatically, quite undeterred by the protests of its grammatical critics.

The Verbal Preposition

Sometimes, when a transitive verb is followed by a preposition and its object, there is a peculiarly close relationship established between the verb and the preposition, which is demonstrated curiously on changing the form of the sentence from the active voice to the

passive. In such a sentence as the following, "The nurse took care of the patient," the form may be changed from the active to the passive thus: "The patient was taken care of by the nurse." Here, the verbal phrase, *was taken care of*, includes *of*, although the word no longer has an object. Another example is afforded by *at* in connection with the verb *to laugh*. We say "The fellow was laughed at." The preposition here is essentially adverbial in its character.

Formerly, it was the custom to place a hyphen between the verb and preposition in such case, in order to indicate the intimate connection. Ruskin, for example, would have written the sentence: "The fellow was laughed-at." This usage also is to be classed as one of the idioms of our language.

The Case of Pronouns

When an interrogative pronoun introduces a question, it may be the object of a verb that follows, although separated from it. Thus we say, "What did he say?" or, "Which shall I choose?" and the like. Now, in the sentences quoted above, no mistake of a grammatical sort is possible in the use of *which* or

what, due to confusion over the case of the pronoun, since the nominative and the objective forms are identical. So, we say, "What is it?" or "What has he said?" In either question, the pronoun is the same, although in the first sentence of the two *what* is in the nominative case, while in the second it is in the objective.

But there is need of caution in connection with the use of the pronoun *who* as an interrogative. This is because there is a variation in form between the nominative and the objective. We properly ask: "Who was it?" thus using the nominative of the pronoun. But we properly ask also, "Whom did you meet?" here placing the pronoun in the objective case, since it is the object of the verb.

It is in this connection that a grammatical blunder is commonly committed. It is very easy — so easy, indeed, that it seems natural — to put the interrogative pronoun in the nominative case, and to say, "Who did you meet?" Probably the error has its origin in the fact that the pronoun stands at the opening of the sentence, and as it is thus employed at the outset its grammatical relation to the

predicate is not anticipated. Moreover, the nominative form emphasizes the importance of the word. The mistake is made so frequently that it might almost be regarded as an idiom of the language. But it is not, for the simple reason that all educated persons who are careful of their speech take pains to employ the objective case when the pronoun is thus the object of a verb. The student should give particular attention to this matter, and learn to discriminate with accuracy as to when the pronoun is the subject of the verb and when it is the object, in order that he may use the nominative case and the objective respectively according to the grammatical requirement.

He must be at pains not to be led astray by hearing *who* instead of *whom* issuing wrongly from the lips of his associates. He must cultivate correctness for himself by learning to detect such errors on the part of others.

All that has been said above concerning the interrogative pronouns, is applicable, of course, to the relative pronouns. Again, the student may derive comfort from the fact that there is no change of form from nominative to objective, except as to *who* and *whom*.

And again he must bear in mind that, whenever the relative is the object of a verb, it must be in the objective form, *whom*, even though it lead the sentence.

The student must be diligent in mastering the predicate nominative in connection with pronouns having a different form for the objective case. For example, he must say: "It is I"; "It is he"; "It is she"; "It is they"; He must not say: "It is me"; "It is him"; "It is her"; "It is them." This error of using the objective case of the pronoun instead of the nominative is heard almost constantly. There is something approaching justification for it as to the first person. There seems to be a suggestion of self-assertiveness in the announcement, "It is I." There is certainly more modesty, if less grammar, in saying, "It's me." The truth of this fact is borne out by the French grammatical rule, which does not permit the use of the nominative in such a case. We can hardly imagine a lovable child that would announce its presence by saying: "It is I." But, here again, the error is not accepted as an idiom of the language, and the student, ambitious to acquire correct speech, must familiarize himself

with the principle involved, and become apt to apply it.

Modesty is the reason for the grammatical rule that one should place the pronoun of the first person after any others: *you and I*; not *I and you*; *him and me*; not *me and him*, etc.

Agreement of the Verb

There is a grammatical rule to the effect that where different persons are joined as the subject of a verb, the verb agrees with the second person rather than with the third, and with the first rather than with the second. This rule includes the order of the persons, by which the second precedes the third, while both the second and third precede the first. According to this rule, a grammatically precise person might properly declare, "Either you or he are mistaken"; or "Either you or I am mistaken." In the first instance, the number of the pronoun *you*, which is second person, determines the person and number of the verb, since the second person has the preference over the third. So, in the second sentence, the pronoun *I*, which is first person, determines the person and number of the verb,

since the first person is given the preference over the second.

As a matter of fact, this rule should be honored in the breach, rather than in the observance, because the construction that results is a peculiarly awkward one. The student should take care to avoid this clumsy mode of expression. It is possible always to change the wording so as to secure an effect less offensive. This might be accomplished in the sentences above simply by a repetition of the verb. Thus, we would have, "Either you are mistaken, or he is"; "Either you are mistaken or I am." Another ready device for escape from any such perplexity is the employment of an auxiliary to the verb, which is uninflected. By reason of its form remaining the same for the three persons in both numbers, clumsiness is eliminated. So, we may say, "Either you or he must be mistaken"; "Either you or I must be mistaken."

Verb and Collective Noun

Often, there is some difficulty in determining the number of a verb that has for its subject a collective noun — that is to say, a noun in the singular as concerns its form, but in

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the plural as concerns its meaning. Such words as *family*, *crowd*, *multitude*, and a large number of others, are of this sort. In many instances, the verb may be either singular or plural, according as we wish to emphasize the unity expressed by the subject, or the individual parts of which the subject is composed. Thus, we may say, "The multitude was vast"; but we may say also, "The multitude were cheering." It is obvious that in the first statement the unity of the assembly is emphasized, while in the second stress is laid on the individuals.

The student should note that some plural words are regarded as singular in meaning, and therefore take a singular verb. Examples of such words are *means* and *news*. We say properly, "The means is," etc., or, "The news is," etc. But *means* is, of course, used properly with a plural verb, when it refers to more than one thing.

A similar principle determines the use of a verb in the singular when the subject is a plural having to do with money or the like. "The thousand dollars has been spent," is a proper expression grammatically considered. It would seem as if the words, *the thousand*

dollars, were regarded merely as specifying the sum, which is one and singular.

An idiomatic variation in the plural of the verb has to do with the word *many*. We use a singular verb in such a sentence as, "Many a child is unhappy." The verb here agrees with its subject *child*, although that subject is really plural in idea by reason of *many* preceding it. But when the sentence is, "Many children are unhappy," there is no irregularity. The irregularity reappears, however, when the word *many* is preceded by the indefinite article and an adjective, as in the sentence, "A great many children are unhappy." The singular idea conveyed by the article *a* is not carried out in the subject, which is essentially plural and therefore the verb is plural. *A few* similarly requires a plural verb.

Verb and Compound Subject

When *and* connects a number of nouns that together form a subject in the plural, the verb is in the plural number. But, sometimes, the conjunction *and* is placed between nouns which still retain the force of a singular for the subject, because of their relationship. Thus we may say, "This man and prince was of a

noble character." The verb *was* is in the singular because the subject, *man* and *prince*, is descriptive of one person. We may properly say: "The man and prince were of a noble character." Here, two persons are indicated, and consequently the verb must be in the plural.

Occasionally, *and* is associated with another word, so that its effect on the number of the subject is nullified. This is especially the case when *and* is joined with *not*. In the sentence, "Love, and not hate, moves the universe," the verb is singular, because its subject is the singular noun, *love*. *And not hate*, is really an independent phrase, which has no effect on the number of the verb.

Where there is a compound subject, but the verb follows one of the nouns, while the other nouns come later in the sentence, the verb agrees in number with the noun preceding it as its subject. For example: "The man was ready, and his wife and the children"; "At this interruption the members of the congregation were profoundly shocked, and the clergyman also."

When the verb precedes a number of nouns, which form the compound subject, it agrees

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in number with the first of the nouns, and this rule applies especially when the verb itself is preceded by an introductory word such as *there* or *such*. For example, "There is sufficient space and all the materials necessary." But the plural verb also may be used, if preferred.

It as the subject may cause the verb to be singular, although the predicate noun or nouns may be plural. Thus, "It is the men of genius who fashion the ornaments of the world."

Adjective or Adverb

There is sometimes confusion as to whether an adverb or an adjective should be used. In all such cases, the test must be by determining whether the application of the meaning is to the subject or to the verb. For example, we may say: "He advanced, calm in the face of peril," or we may say, "He advanced, calmly in the face of peril." In the first sentence, the word *calm* is a predicate adjective, which qualifies the pronoun *he*; but, in the second sentence, the word *calmly* is an adverb modifying the verb, thus defining the character of the action expressed by the word *advanced*.

A similar distinction must be exercised in connection with many sentences. The student must train himself to discriminate as to whether he means to describe a quality possessed by the subject of the sentence or to indicate something as to the manner of the action expressed by the verb. For the first of these two purposes, he should employ an adjective; for the second, an adverb. Thus, "I look sadly" at another person, but to that other person, "I look sad."

The student should note at this point a very common error, made by educated persons, curiously enough, rather than by the illiterate. This has to do with the verb *to feel*. When a person says, "I feel bad," his utterance is grammatically correct. In this particular instance, the adjective qualifies the pronoun *myself*, which is not expressed, but is the object of the verb *feel*. One who has studied grammar to some extent, so that he appreciates the relation between a verb and its adverb, makes the mistake of believing that the adverb should be used here, saying, "I feel badly." Yet, the same blunderer would never say, "I feel hotly," which would be of exactly the same construction.

Than

The student should take pains to understand that the word *than* is not a preposition. By this means, he will be able to avoid many pitfalls in the case of a following pronoun. That following pronoun may be in either the nominative or the objective case, according to the sense of the sentence. If *than* were a pronoun, it would always be followed properly by the objective case. As a matter of fact, however, the pronoun that follows *than* has its case nominative or objective according as to whether it is the subject or object of a verb that is understood. In such a sentence as, "They serve their God more zealously than me," the pronoun is in the objective case because it is the object of the verb *serve*, which is understood, though not expressed. But, in such a sentence as, "They serve their God more zealously than I," the pronoun *I* is in the nominative case because it is the subject of the verb understood, *serve*. The student, in any instance, may determine with certainty the case of the pronoun by supplying the verb necessary to make the sense complete, and observing whether, according to that sense,

the pronoun would be the subject or the object in the dependent clause introduced by *than*.

Had Rather and Had Better

Old idiomatic phrases in English were *had rather* and *had better*, which are still current. There is the best of literary authority for these, and the student may safely use them. Some grammarians, however, have insisted on the substitute form *would rather*, and it is commonly employed. This newer form is permissible, but it must be remembered that *had rather* is correct English. So, too, is *had better*. *Would better* is objectionable, although it is often heard and oftener seen. The student should shun *would better*, *would sooner*, and the like.

CHAPTER III

VULGARISMS

THERE are certain vulgarisms against which the student must guard himself scrupulously. Perhaps the commonest of these is the contraction *don't* instead of *doesn't*.

It is proper to say, "I don't," as a contraction for "I do not"; it is not proper to say "He don't," as a contraction for "He does not." The wrong contraction is popular by reason of its convenience.

The like reason explains the contraction *ain't*, which is used for *am not*, *is not* and *are not*, and its fellow form *bain't*. These are constantly employed, but the student must regard them as unpardonable offenses against good language.

Another vulgarism is the use of *them* instead of *those*, to qualify a noun, as in the sentence, "I knowed them fellers wa'n't up to no good." A more careful speaker would begin the sentence, "I knew those fellows —." The stu-

dent should bear in mind that *them* is never thus used to qualify a noun.

Those should not be substituted for *that* before a singular noun. This is a curious error that arises from a plural idea in the phrase. Thus, because the phrase *that kind of men* has a plural idea in it, the careless speaker changes it to *those kind of men*.

Really, not *real*, should always be the form before an adjective. Thus, it is proper to say, *a really good man, a really bad*, etc. It is not proper to say, *a real good man, a real bad*, etc.

Care must be exercised in the use of the preposition *between*, to remember that it is properly employed in reference to only two persons or things. If more than two are concerned, the corresponding preposition must be *among*. For example, it is right to say: *between you and me*. It is not right to say, *between us three*. Here the preposition should be *among*.

The student should note that in the prepositional phrase above, *between you and me*, the pronoun *me* is properly in the objective case, since it is one of the two objects of the preposition *between*. He should avoid the mistakes often made by persons of some education,

who take pains to put the second pronoun in the nominative case, thus saying *between you and I*. The reason for this error is that they have harkened to the teacher who warned them against a wrong use of the objective case in such sentences as, "You and me have got to go," and the like. The nominative case of the pronouns, *I*, *we*, *he* and *she* must be employed always for the subject of a verb, but the objective case must be used for these pronouns when they are the objects of either a verb or a preposition. When the student has trained himself to say, "You and I are friends," or, "You and he are friends," he must not let this usage betray him into the fault of saying, *between you and I*, or *between you and he*, or other similar errors in the case of pronouns following any preposition.

The student must acquire a familiarity with the parts of irregular verbs such as to prevent that wrong use of them which is characteristic among the uneducated. He should study the list until every detail is mastered. In addition, he must bear in mind always that an auxiliary verb is to be used only with a participle, never with the past tense of another verb. For example, the present tense of the

verb *to do* has for the first person singular, *I do*; the past tense has *I did*, and the past-perfect tense has *I have done*. With the auxiliary *have* (or *has*) only *done* can be used. On the contrary, *done* cannot be substituted for *did* as the past form without an auxiliary. Only the illiterate person says, "I done it," or "I have did it." Similarly, the correct forms are: *I see, I saw, I have seen*. *Seen* is vulgarly substituted for *saw*; *I seen, you seen, he seen, they seen*. * *Have* (or *has*) *saw* is equally objectionable. Thorough knowledge of the irregular verbs will save the student from such gross blunders.

CHAPTER IV

PUNCTUATION

THE object of punctuation is to aid the reader toward clear understanding of what is written.

The comma (,) is used to separate several subjects or predicates. For example, "Love, fear, hope and despair"; "They raged, fought, screamed and died."

The comma is also used to inclose clauses and phrases, and words in apposition. A comma follows the name of a person addressed, or his designation. For example, "James, come here," "Fellow, go away." This use is followed also in connection with any person or thing apostrophized, as in the quotation, "O Rome, Rome, thou hast been a tender nurse to me."

The effect of various conjunctions is often emphasized by preceding them with a comma. For example, *powerful, yet silent; soft, but penetrating.*

Inverted parts of a sentence are set off by a comma. For example, "He is well, I hope."

The various parts of an address or a date, and the like, are distinguished by the insertion of commas. For example, *New York, September 23, 1919*. The student should note, however, that a comma is not to be placed between the month and the day of the month.

The semicolon (;) is used chiefly between coördinate clauses in a compound sentence. The present tendency is toward a greatly lessened employment of the semicolon.

The colon (:) calls particular attention to whatever follows. It may be used in a sentence to separate two equal clauses, or it may be used at the end of a sentence in place of a period, when it is desired to point out an intimate relationship with the following sentence.

Every sentence is closed by a period (.) unless it be an interrogation or an exclamation. A period is used after all abbreviations, except when the omission of letters is indicated by an apostrophe.

The interrogation mark (?) is used instead of the period at the end of a question.

The exclamation mark (!) is used instead of

the period at the end of an exclamatory sentence. But it may be used also in place of a comma after an exclamation anywhere within a sentence. For example, "Would he were here!" "And she, alas! could only wait in silence."

The apostrophe (') is used in place of an omitted letter or letters in a word. Thus, *sha'n't* is equivalent to *shall not*, the first apostrophe taking the place of the omitted *ll*, and the second taking the place of the omitted *o*. The apostrophe is also the sign of the possessive case. For example, *John's hat*, *the horses' heads*.

The hyphen (-) is used between the component parts of a compound word, such as *double-faced*. It is employed also after a syllable at the end of a line when the remainder of the word begins the following line.

CHAPTER V
CAPITALS

A CAPITAL letter should begin:

1. Every sentence in prose
2. Every line in poetry
3. The names of the months
4. The days of the week
5. Names of persons and places
and the adjectives derived from these
6. All appellations of the Deity
7. A direct quotation
8. The important words in titles and
headings
9. The pronoun *I*
10. The interjection *O*
11. Honorary titles associated with names
of persons, as the *Reverend Mr. Smith, Doctor Jones.*

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

THE student should appreciate the fact that our English language is essentially a logical one. That is to say, its arrangement is such as to present in their natural order the various constituent parts of a sentence. Other languages, in many instances, are highly inflected, and depend on this quality for their intelligibility. The lack of inflections in English necessitates exactness in the order of words for the interpretation of the thought. For example, in the sentence, "I struck the man," the order of the words is vital, and every word is essential. The pronoun *I* is required, as it might not be were the verb form inflected, for its omission would leave uncertain the identity of the striker. The form *struck* would be the same were the striker *I, he, we, you* or *they*. The object *man* follows the verb in its logical place. Since only the position indicates its case, it should not precede the verb, but should follow it as the

object of the action expressed by the verb. In Latin, the object might begin the sentence without confusion, since the form of the word would show it to be in the accusative (objective) case. Were it placed at the beginning in an English sentence, the logical effect would be to regard it as the nominative, the subject of a verb to follow. "The man I struck" is not good English standing alone as a complete sentence. "The man I struck was seriously hurt," is perfectly good English. *Man* is here the subject of the verb *was*, and it is therefore properly placed at the beginning of the sentence. It is not now the object of the verb *struck*. That object is omitted for convenience. If expressed, it would be the relative pronoun *whom*, giving the sentence the form: "The man whom I struck was seriously hurt." In this case, the logical order requires that the object of the verb *struck* should not follow, but should precede in order that it may be closely associated with the noun to which it refers.

These few suggestions are sufficient to guide the student toward a consideration of the logical quality in our language. We are compelled to depend on a right arrangement of the

words we use, if we would make our meaning clear.

Thus, the prime requirements for good language are simplicity and clearness. And the two are interdependent. The principles set forth in the foregoing pages sum up all the facts concerning the structure of our speech that are essential. Equipped with the knowledge thus conveyed, the student should apply it to the cultivation of logical methods in both speaking and writing. By such means, he may attain toward a mastery of simplicity and clearness, twin tests of all literary art.



THERE is no royal road to learning.

IT is an old saying, and a true one, in a sense: for prince and peasant must alike travel the path.

YET, there are many paths, and great differences among them, as they lead to the temple of knowledge. In some, the going is easy: in some, hard. In some, the journeying is pleasant and profitable: in some, toilsome—a weary scramble over many stumbling blocks.

THE builder of the road is the teacher. It is his task to smooth the way, and to make it straight: or to leave it all cluttered, a twisted, haphazard course, that runs roughly and reaches nowhere.

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Further titles will be added as opportunity presents itself to secure the proper type of manuscript.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

GRAMMAR

PART I

ELEMENTS OF GRAMMAR

CHAPTER I

THE NOUN

Question: Into how many classes are all words divided?

Answer: Eight.

Q: What is grammar?

A: The science dealing with these eight classes.

Q: What are the eight divisions?

A: Noun, pronoun, adjective, verb, adverb, preposition, conjunction, interjection.

Q: What does the word noun mean?

A: Literally, a name.

Q: How is the term used?

A: To designate the name of anything.

Q: What is an example?

A: The word *water* is the name given to a liquid made of two parts of hydrogen and one part of oxygen.

Q: What is a great body of salt water called?

A: A *sea*.

Q: What is the word *sea*?

A: A noun.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

Q: What are other examples of nouns?

A: The words *ice* and *steam* to describe changed forms of water.

Q: Are the names of abstract ideas also nouns?

A: Yes.

Q: What are examples?

A: *Economy*, *prodigality*.

Q: What are the two divisions of nouns?

A: Common and proper.

Q: What are common nouns?

A: Those names applied to individual members of groups.

Q: What are examples?

A: *Cat* and *dog*.

Q: Of which sort are almost all nouns?

A: Common.

Q: What is a proper noun?

A: The special name given to a certain person or thing.

Q: What is an example?

A: The name *Leviathan* as given to a ship.

Q: May the same word be both a proper and a common noun?

A: Yes, *leviathan* as the name of a prehistoric sea monster is a common noun.

Q: What is the name *Smith*?

A: A proper noun.

Q: Is the word *smith* also a common noun?

A: Yes.

THE NOUN

Q: What are all names of persons?

A: Proper nouns.

Q: What is a general division of humanity?

A: Into male and female.

Q: Does a like division extend to all living creatures?

A: Yes.

Q: What is the relation of this fact to grammar?

A: The gender of nouns is regulated by it.

Q: How?

A: The names of males are nouns of the masculine gender; of females, feminine gender; of anything either male or female, of neuter gender.

Q: What are examples?

A: *King* and *bull* are masculine, *queen* and *cow* are feminine.

Q: What is an advantage in the English language?

A: Simplicity in the matter of gender, which is much more complicated in other tongues.

Q: What is another attribute of the noun?

A: Person.

Q: What are the variations in person?

A: It may be either first, second or third.

Q: What are the distinctions?

A: A noun that is the name of one speaking is in the first person; the name of the one addressed is in the second person; the name of a person or thing spoken of is in the third person.

Q: What is another attribute of nouns?

A: Number.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

Q: What are the divisions of number?

A: Singular and plural.

Q: When is a noun singular?

A: When a single person or thing is concerned.

Q: When is a noun plural?

A: When it is the name of more than one person or thing.

Q: How is the plural usually formed in English words?

A: By adding *s* or *es* to the singular.

Q: What is another attribute of nouns?

A: Case.

Q: What are the divisions of case?

A: Nominative, possessive and objective.

Q: Is there any difference in the form of the noun for the nominative and objective cases?

A: No.

Q: How are these cases distinguished?

A: By the noun's relations to other words.

Q: What are examples?

A: The subject of a verb is in the nominative case, but the object of a verb or preposition is in the objective case.

Q: What of the possessive case?

A: This has a distinctive form adding *'s* to noun.

Q: What does this sign at the end of a noun indicate?

A: Possession.

Q: What is an example?

A: The phrase *the boy's hat* shows that the hat spoken of belongs to the boy.

THE NOUN

- Q: How is the possessive indicated for plural words?
A: The apostrophe after the *s* of the plural is sufficient.
- Q: What of a singular noun ending in *s*?
A: The addition of the apostrophe is sufficient for the possessive, but another *s* is sometimes added.
- Q: When a noun is said to be in apposition, what is meant?
A: The word is used to describe a noun placed immediately after another noun, in order to define such preceding noun.
- Q: What is an example?
A: The newcomer, a stranger, bowed.
- Q: Which is the noun in apposition?
A: The noun *stranger* is in apposition, with the noun *newcomer* which it defines.
- Q: What is the case of a noun in apposition?
A: It is always that of the principal noun.

CHAPTER II

THE PRONOUN

Question: What is a pronoun?

Answer: A word used for a noun, a substitute.

Q: What is the advantage of pronouns?

A: Avoidance of tiresome repetitions of a particular noun.

Q: What is the name given to the noun for which the pronoun stands?

A: The antecedent.

Q: What does this word mean?

A: Literally, that going before.

Q: Why is the word antecedent appropriate?

A: Because usually the noun is first used, thus going before, and afterward the pronoun is substituted.

Q: Are there exceptions?

A: Yes; sometimes there is no antecedent expressed and sometimes a pronoun may serve as an antecedent.

Q: In what way do pronouns resemble nouns?

A: They have gender, person, number, case.

Q: What is the rule?

A: The pronoun must agree with its antecedent in gender, person and number.

THE PRONOUN

Q: What is a personal pronoun?

A: One varying in form according as it represents a noun of the first person or the second or the third.

Q: What distinguishes the personal pronoun?

A: They are more highly inflected than any other words in our language.

Q: What are the personal pronouns?

A: *I, thou, he, she, it*, in the singular and *we, you* and *they* in the plural.

Q: What are the varying forms of these pronouns for the different cases?

A: The nominative is *I*, possessive *my* or *mine*, objective *me*, in the singular, and similarly *we*, *our* or *ours*, *us*, in the plural.

Q: What are the forms for the second person?

A: Nominative *thou*, possessive *thy* or *thine*, objective *thee* in the singular, and *you, your* or *yours, you*, in the plural.

Q: Is there any difference in these forms to represent gender?

A: No.

Q: Is this true as to the forms for the third person?

A: No, the forms vary, for masculine, feminine and neuter.

Q: What are the masculine forms for the pronoun of the third person?

A: For the singular, nominative *he*, possessive *his*, objective *him*.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

Q: What are the feminine forms?

A: For the singular, nominative *she*, possessive *her* or *hers*, objective *her*.

Q: What are the neuter forms?

A: For the singular, nominative *it*, possessive *its*, objective *it*.

Q: What of the plural forms for the pronoun of the third person?

A: They are the same for all genders.

Q: What are they?

A: For the plural, nominative *they*, possessive *their* or *theirs*, objective *them*.

Q: What is to be noted as to our usage concerning the gender of pronouns?

A: The neuter pronoun *it* is used when the sex of the noun for which it stands is disregarded as in speaking of animals and sometimes of children.

Q: How is the gender of the antecedent described in such cases?

A: The noun is said to be of a common gender.

Q: What are examples?

A: The nouns *animal* and *child*.

Q: Is the pronoun standing for a noun of common gender always neuter?

A: No, it varies according to circumstances.

Q: What is an example?

A: The word *friend* is a noun of common gender, but the pronoun *he* or *she* would stand for it according as the friend referred to was a man or a woman.

THE PRONOUN

Q: What are other examples of nouns of common gender?

A: *Neighbor, enemy, teacher.*

Q: What gender of the pronoun is usually employed when the gender of such an antecedent is unknown?

A: The masculine pronoun is commonly employed.

Q: What is the difference between the two forms of the possessive case?

A: The first is used when the pronoun is followed by a noun, the second when it stands alone.

Q: What are examples?

A: *My bat, our bat; the bat is mine, the bat is ours.*

Q: What of the forms *his* and *its*?

A: They remain unchanged whether or not a noun follows the pronoun.

Q: How is a compound personal pronoun formed?

A: By adding *self* or *selves* to the nominative or objective.

Q: What are such compounds?

A: *Myself, ourselves, thyself, yourself, yourselves, himself, herself, itself, themselves.*

Q: What is to be noted of these compounds?

A: That the possessive case of the prefix is used in some instances, but not in all.

Q: Why is the objective case of the prefix used in the forms *himself* and *themselves*?

A: To avoid the awkwardness of *hissself* and *theirselves*.

Q: What is a demonstrative pronoun?

A: One referring directly to its antecedent.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

Q: What are the demonstrative pronouns?

A: *This* and *that*, in the singular, *these* and *those* in the plural.

Q: What is the difference in meaning?

A: *This* refers to an antecedent somehow closer, while *that* refers to an antecedent more remote.

Q: What is an example?

A: *This* is my seat, *that* is yours.

Q: Is the distinction applied also to time?

A: Yes.

Q: What is an example?

A: *This* is the day we celebrate; *that* was a wonderful day.

Q: What is to be noted in reference to the demonstrative pronoun?

A: The antecedent may be a whole clause or sentence instead of a single noun.

Q: What is an example?

A: Will he ever return, answer me *that*.

Q: What is the antecedent of *that*?

A: The entire question, Will he ever return?

Q: What is an interrogative pronoun?

A: One used in questions.

Q: How many are there?

A: There are three, which serve also as relative pronouns.

Q: What are they?

A: *Who*, *which*, *what*.

THE PRONOUN

Q: Are they declined?

A: Only *who* has varying case forms.

Q: What are these?

A: For both singular and plural, masculine and feminine, nominative *who*, possessive *whose*, objective *whom*.

Q: What of *which* and *what*?

A: They are invariable.

Q: How is the possessive case indicated?

A: By *of* preceding the pronoun.

Q: When are *who*, *whose* and *whom* used?

A: When they refer to a person or persons, whether masculine or feminine.

Q: What of *which* and *what*?

A: They are broader in scope, being used in interrogations concerning persons, animals and objects.

Q: What is a peculiarity of interrogative pronouns?

A: They always lack an antecedent.

Q: What is a relative pronoun?

A: One referring to an expressed antecedent.

Q: What are the relative pronouns?

A: *Who*, *which*, *what*, *that*.

Q: Do these have various case forms?

A: Only for *who*, which has the possessive *whose* and objective *whom*, like the interrogative.

Q: Are the forms of the relative pronouns the same for both masculine and feminine?

A: Yes.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

Q: For singular and plural?

A: Yes.

Q: How is the possessive indicated for *which*, *what* and *that*?

A: By *of* before the pronoun.

Q: What is to be noted as to the antecedent of a relative pronoun?

A: The antecedent may be a clause of a sentence instead of a noun.

Q: What are the distinctions as to gender for relative pronouns?

A: The same as those for interrogative pronouns.

Q: For what persons may *who* and *that* be employed?

A: For any one of the three persons.

Q: What of *which* and *what*?

A: These are used only in the third person.

Q: What terminations are sometimes added to *who* or *whom*, *which* and *what*?

A: *Ever* and *soever*.

Q: What is the effect?

A: The scope of the pronoun is broadened.

Q: What name is given to such pronouns as *whoever* and *whatsoever*?

A: They are called compound relative pronouns.

Q: When a pronoun refers to an indefinite object how is this fact expressed?

A: The pronoun itself is termed an indefinite pronoun.

Q: What are such pronouns?

A: *Another*, *any*, *both*, *each*, *either*, *neither*, *none*, *one*, *other*, *some*, *such*.

THE PRONOUN

Q: Are there variations for cases for these?

A: No.

Q: Which of them have no plural?

A: *Another, each, either* and *neither* are always singular.

Q: Which are used in both singular and plural?

A: *Some* and *such*.

Q: What of *any* and *both*?

A: These are employed only as plurals.

Q: Have any of the relative pronouns variations for number?

A: Yes; *one* is singular, *ones* plural, *other* singular, *others* plural.

Q: What of *none*?

A: It is singular, but is often used in a plural sense.

Q: What is a pronominal adjective?

A: It is a pronoun used before a noun or pronoun to qualify the meaning.

Q: What is an equivalent term?

A: An adjective pronoun.

Q: What indefinite pronouns may be thus used as adjectives?

A: All except *none*.

Q: Which of the interrogatives and relatives?

A: *Which* and *what*.

Q: Which of the demonstratives?

A: *This, these, that, those*.

Q: Which pronouns are never pronominal adjectives?

A: *Who* and *none*.

CHAPTER III

THE ADJECTIVE

Question: What is an adjective?

Answer: A word that describes a noun or a pronoun.

Q: What are examples?

A: In the phrases, a big dog, the small horse, thin wood, open sea, the words: *big, small, thin, open,* are adjectives.

Q: Is the adjective always placed next to the noun it qualifies?

A: No.

Q: What is an example?

A: In the phrase, the house is warm, the adjective *warm* is separated from the noun *house*.

Q: What of the numerals?

A: The numerals, *one, two, three*, etc., are employed as adjectives.

Q: What are examples?

A: In the phrases: three men, seven women, the numerals *three* and *seven* serve as adjectives.

Q: What is a particular name for such adjectives?

A: Limiting adjectives.

Q: What other adjectives are of this class?

A: Those of quantity and measure.

THE ADJECTIVE

Q: What are examples?

A: *Single, double, hourly, annually.*

Q: What is the usual position of an adjective in relation to its noun?

A: It precedes the noun.

Q: What of its position with pronouns?

A: It always follows a pronoun.

Q: What is an example?

A: We saw him alive an hour before.

Q: Are adjectives declined in English?

A: No; the form is not changed for gender, person, number or case.

Q: What of the comparison of adjectives?

A: There are three degrees, the positive, the comparative, and the superlative.

Q: What is the significance of these?

A: In the positive, the use of the adjective makes no comparison with another object; in the comparative, reference is made to another object by the adjective; in the superlative, the adjective expresses the extreme of its quality for its noun or pronoun as compared with other objects.

Q: What is an example of the positive degree?

A: The smart boy, in which phrase there is no comparison with another boy, and the form of the adjective is unchanged.

Q: What is an example of the comparative degree?

A: The smarter boy, in which the adjective carries a reference to another boy not so smart, as shown by the ending *er*, the sign of the comparative degree.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

Q: What may be used instead of the termination *er*?

A: The word *more* preceding the adjective, or the word *less*.

Q: What is an example?

A: A boy less smart.

Q: What is an example of the superlative degree?

A: The greatest man in the world, in which *est* of the adjective is the sign of the superlative degree.

Q: What is the rule of words of one syllable as to comparison?

A: For the comparative, *er* is added to the adjective; for the superlative *est* is added.

Q: May these terminations be used for longer words?

A: They are common for words of two syllables.

Q: What forms are used for the comparative when the adjective has more than two syllables?

A: *More* or *less* precedes the adjective.

Q: What for the superlative?

A: *Most* or *least* precedes the adjective.

Q: Is the position of *most* variable?

A: It is in a few cases added as a termination.

Q: What is an example?

A: *Foremost*.

Q: What is to be noted concerning the comparison of adjectives?

A: That the comparative degree includes only two objects or groups of objects, while the superlative includes more than two.

THE ADJECTIVE

Q: What word precedes the object of the comparison in the comparative degree?

A: *Than*.

Q: What is an example?

A: He is younger *than* she is.

Q: What word precedes the object in the superlative degree?

A: Usually, *of*.

Q: What is an example?

A: The happiest of men.

Q: May other words be used instead of *of*?

A: Yes, as in the phrase, the happiest man in the world.

Q: Is the object of comparison ever omitted?

A: Yes, it is often merely implied.

Q: What is an example?

A: The happiest man is he who knows peace.

Q: What are numerals?

A: Adjectives of number.

Q: Into what two classes are they divided?

A: Cardinals and ordinals.

Q: What do cardinals indicate?

A: Number without any qualifications.

Q: What are examples?

A: *One* man, *seven* women, *sixty* children.

Q: Are the numerals employed otherwise than as adjectives?

A: Yes, as nouns,

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

Q: What is an example?

A: *Seventy-five* were killed.

Q: What is to be noted of this example?

A: That the cardinal is used as a plural noun.

Q: What does an ordinal signify?

A: A certain place in a series of numbers.

Q: How are the ordinals formed?

A: Usually, by a suffix to the cardinal.

Q: What are exceptions?

A: First and second are not derived from one and two.

Q: What are other ordinals?

A: From three to twelve, they are third, fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh, eighth, ninth, tenth, eleventh, twelfth.

Q: How are the ordinals of the 'teens formed?

A: By the addition of *th* to the cardinals.

Q: What are examples?

A: Thirteenth, fourteenth, etc.

Q: Is *th* used also for higher numbers?

A: Yes, for all the higher numbers.

Q: What are examples?

A: Twentieth, hundredth, thousandth.

Q: Are ordinals used as nouns?

A: Yes, usually with *the* preceding.

Q: What is an example?

A: *The first* and *the fifth* are the same.

THE ADJECTIVE

Q: How many articles are there?

A: Two, the indefinite and the definite.

Q: What is the indefinite article?

A: *A* or *an*, *a* standing before words beginning with a consonant, and *an* before words beginning with a vowel.

Q: What is the significance of the indefinite article?

A: It indicates one of a group, but does not specify a particular one.

Q: What is an example?

A: Give me a glass.

Q: What is the definite article?

A: *The*.

Q: What does it signify?

A: It refers specifically to one person or thing or group.

Q: What are examples?

A: The heart, the truth, the old days.

Q: What is the order when the article and adjectives both precede a noun?

A: The article first, then any adjectives.

Q: What is an example?

A: The good boys.

CHAPTER IV

THE VERB

Question: What is a verb?

Answer: That part of speech which asserts something concerning its subject.

Q: What is the subject?

A: One or more nouns or pronouns.

Q: What is an example?

A: In the sentence, the boy eats, *eats* is a verb, which asserts something concerning the boy, its subject.

Q: What are the two classes of verbs?

A: Transitive and intransitive.

Q: What is a transitive verb?

A: One having an object of the action.

Q: What is an intransitive verb?

A: One having no object.

Q: What are examples?

A: In the sentence, the boy eats candy, *eats* is transitive, having an object *candy*; in the sentence, the boy sleeps, *sleeps* is intransitive, having no object.

Q: What is another classification of verbs?

A: As either principal or auxiliary.

THE VERB

Q: What is a principal verb?

A: One complete in itself.

Q: What are examples?

A: *Eats* and *sleeps* given above.

Q: What is an auxiliary verb?

A: One not complete in itself, but serving to define a principal verb.

Q: What is an example?

A: I shall hope, in which *shall* is an auxiliary.

Q: What is another classification of verbs?

A: As regular or irregular, according to their way of changing their form.

Q: How are the forms changed in regular verbs?

A: By adding *ed* for the past tense and the past participle.

Q: What is an example?

A: The verb *turn* has *turned* for the past tense and the past participle.

Q: What is an example of an irregular verb?

A: *Do*, which has the past tense *did* and the past participle *done*.

Q: Are there many irregular verbs in English?

A: Comparatively few.

Q: What is the active voice of verbs?

A: When the subject is presented as acting.

Q: What is an example?

A: The fire heats the room, in which the subject *fire*, is shown in action by the verb *heats*.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

Q: What is the passive voice?

A: When the subject is presented as being acted upon.

Q: What is an example?

A: The room is heated by the fire, in which the subject, *room*, is acted upon.

Q: How is the passive voice formed?

A: By using forms of the verb *be* with the past participle of any required verb.

Q: What occurs when the active is inverted to the passive?

A: The object of the active verb becomes the subject of the passive verb.

Q: What is an example?

A: In the sentence above, *room* is the object of the active verb *beats*, and becomes the subject of the passive verb *is heated*.

Q: How is the active subject represented in the passive sentence?

A: It is used with a preposition to show agency, thus *by the fire* with the passive verb shows the activity of the fire.

Q: What name is given to the different manners of expression employed for verbs?

A: Moods.

Q: What are these?

A: The indicative, subjunctive, potential, imperative, and infinitive.

Q: What does the indicative imply?

A: Reality in the verbal idea.

THE VERB

Q: What are examples?

A: He eats; he fell down; he will come.

Q: What does the subjunctive imply?

A: A supposition.

Q: What is an example?

A: If you fall, you will hurt yourself.

Q: How is the subjunctive usually indicated?

A: By an introductory word such as *if, though, unless*, etc.

Q: What does the potential mood express?

A: Desire, need or a possibility.

Q: What does the potential require?

A: The use of auxiliaries, which are *may, can, must, might, could, would* and *should*.

Q: Are *if, though*, etc., used with the potential?

A: They may be.

Q: When is the imperative used?

A: In expressing an order or a supplication.

Q: What are examples?

A: Bless us, O Lord; Be still.

Q: What of the infinitive mood?

A: This is the use of the verb in its broadest sense without limitation.

Q: What is the sign of the infinitive?

A: The word *to* preceding it.

Q: How may the infinitive be employed?

A: As the subject of another verb, or as the object of a verb or a preposition.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

Q: How is the time of the action of a verb indicated?

A: By the tense.

Q: What are the tenses?

A: Past, present and future.

Q: How are these tenses divided?

A: There are two divisions of each tense, one representing the action as completed, which is called the perfect.

Q: What is the effect?

A: The formation of six tenses: present, present perfect; past, past perfect; future, future perfect.

Q: What is an example of the present tense?

A: He laughs.

Q: Of the present perfect?

A: I have arrived, in which the action is completed in the present.

Q: Of the past tense?

A: The day was hot.

Q: Of the past perfect?

A: He had decided, in which the action is completed at a certain past time.

Q: Of the future?

A: He will die.

Q: What are the auxiliaries of the future?

A: *Shall* and *will*.

Q: Of the future perfect?

A: He will have fled, in which *have* indicates completion of the action.

THE VERB

Q: Are there distinctive forms for all these tenses?

A: Only in the indicative mood.

Q: How many subjunctive forms has the verb *to be*?

A: Those for three tenses, present, present perfect and past.

Q: How many subjunctive forms have other verbs?

A: Those for two tenses only, present and present perfect.

Q: What are used for other subjunctive tenses?

A: Indicative forms.

Q: What tenses has the potential?

A: Four, present, present perfect, past and past perfect.

Q: How many tenses has the imperative?

A: One, present.

Q: How many has the infinitive?

A: Two, present and perfect.

Q: What is another characteristic of the verb?

A: It has person, either first, second or third according to its subject.

Q: Has a verb number?

A: Yes, it is singular or plural, in agreement with its subject.

Q: What are examples of person and number?

A: I love, is first person singular; they love, is third person plural.

Q: Are there many changes of verb form for person and number?

A: Almost none.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

Q: What is the only distinct form for the first person singular?

A: *Am*, the form of the verb *to be*.

Q: Are there other special forms of the verb *to be*?

A: Yes.

Q: Do other verbs show any special forms?

A: Only a very few.

Q: What is the rule?

A: The only changes are in terminations for the second and third persons singular.

Q: What are these terminations?

A: *St* for the second person and *s* for the third person.

Q: What is an example?

A: *Thou lovest, he loves*.

Q: What is the rule for agreement of verbs?

A: A verb must always agree with its subject in person and number.

Q: What is a participle?

A: A form of the verb having the properties of a verb and also those of an adjective or noun.

Q: What are the tenses of participles?

A: Present and past.

Q: What is the sign of the present participle?

A: The termination *ing*, which shows present action.

Q: What is an example?

A: *Giving*, which is the present participle of the verb *to give*.

THE VERB

Q: What is the sign of the past participle?

A: The termination *ed* most commonly, although there are other forms.

Q: What are examples?

A: *Loved, learned, played*, from the verbs *to love, to learn, to play*.

Q: What is effected by the use of auxiliaries with the participle?

A: The two forms become six, being three for each voice.

Q: What are the auxiliaries used?

A: *Having, being* and *having been*.

Q: What are examples of the six participles?

A: Present *giving*, past *given*, perfect *having given*, for the active voice; present *being given*, past *given*, perfect *having been given* for the passive voice.

Q: What is the concrete statement of all the forms of a verb called?

A: The conjugation of verbs.

Q: What does this include?

A: Voice, mood, tense, person and number.

Q: Does the learning of one conjugation suffice for all the regular verbs?

A: Yes.

Q: What must be specially learned?

A: Certain forms of the irregular verbs.

Q: What of the auxiliary *to have*?

A: This has some irregularities which must be learned.

Q: What are *shall* and *will*?

A: Auxiliaries of the future tense.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

Q: What is the distinction?

A: *Shall* is used for the first person and *will* for the second and third persons, when mere future action is indicated, but when purpose is emphasized, this usage is reversed, *will* becoming the auxiliary for the first person and *shall* for the second and third persons.

Q: What are variations of these two forms?

A: *Shalt* and *wilt* for second person singular.

Q: What are *should* and *would*?

A: These are the past forms of *shall* and *will*, and are used as auxiliaries for the potential.

Q: What are other auxiliaries for the potential?

A: *May*, *can* and *must*.

Q: What are the past forms for *may* and *can*?

A: *Might* and *could*.

Q: What is distinctive of *must*?

A: It has no change of form.

Q: What are the changes of *may*, *can*, *might* and *could*?

A: They are changed for the second person singular *mayst*, *canst*, *mightst* and *couldst*.

Q: What is another auxiliary that has irregular form?

A: *Do*.

Q: What is its use?

A: It gives additional force to assertions, and also serves in the phrasing of questions.

Q: What are examples?

A: *Do go*; *Do you like it*?

Q: What verb has most irregularities?

A: *To be*.

THE VERB

Q: What advantage do we bring to our study of this verb?

A: Familiarity with all its forms in our ordinary speech.

Q: How is the student to secure mastery of the irregular verb forms?

A: By careful study of the list, which is not very long, and with which he is already familiar in great part from his knowledge of ordinary speech.

Q: What is to be noted concerning the participle?

A: As a verb it may have an object and it may be modified by an adverb; it may serve as an adjective or a noun.

Q: What are examples?

A: The present participle of the verb *to fly* is *flying*; it is an adjective in the phrase, the flying squadron; in the phrase, the squadron flying slowly, the verbal character permits the use of the adverb *slowly*, although it is still adjectival; in the phrase, the flying continued for hours, the participle serves as a noun, and is the subject of a verb; similarly, it might be the object of a verb or of a preposition.

Q: What is to be remembered particularly in connection with the participle?

A: That it has a threefold nature, a verb, adjective and noun.

Q: Which of these three phases is the original and permanent quality?

A: The verbal; the others appear only in certain relations.

CHAPTER V

THE ADVERB

Question: What is an adverb?

Answer: A word that modifies a verb, adjective or another adverb.

Q: What is an example?

A: In the sentence, he cried loudly, *loudly* is an adverb, which modifies the verb *cried*; in the phrase very loudly, *very* is an adverb, which modifies the adverb *loudly*.

Q: What are the classes of adverbs?

A: They are six: of place, time, manner, cause, number and degree.

Q: What are adverbs of place?

A: Those having to do with location, such as *above*, *back*, *below*, *here*, *there*, *up*, etc.

Q: What are examples of adverbs of time?

A: *Again*, *always*, *never*, *often*, *when*, etc.

Q: What of adverbs of manner?

A: They serve to define action; for example, *badly*, *easily*, *how*, *no*, *not*, *thus*, *well*, *yes*, etc.

Q: What are adverbs of cause?

A: Those concerned with the reason for an action, such as *consequently*, *hence*, *therefore*, *wherefore*, *why*, etc.

THE ADVERB

Q: How are adverbs of number formed?

A: From the ordinals by using the suffix *ly*.

Q: What are examples?

A: *Secondly, thirdly, fourthly*, etc.

Q: When is the suffix not used?

A: In the case of *first*, since this is an adverb.

Q: What are adverbs of degree?

A: Those defining the intensity of an action, such as *almost, chiefly, enough, much, more, most, only, partly, too*, etc.

Q: What is another classification of adverbs?

A: As interrogative adverbs, which are used in asking questions.

Q: What are examples?

A: *How, when, where, whether, why*, etc.

Q: What is a relative adverb?

A: One joining a principal clause to a dependent clause.

Q: What is another name?

A: Conjunctive adverbs.

Q: What are examples?

A: *How, now, since, so, when, whence, where, why*, etc.

Q: In what way do adverbs resemble adjectives?

A: They are sometimes compared.

Q: What are examples?

A: *More, most, less* and *least*.

Q: Is *er* or *est* added to show the degree of comparison?

A: Only in a few cases.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

Q: What are examples?

A: *Deep, early, fast, hard, long, often, quick and soon*, have comparatives in *er* and superlatives in *est*.

Q: Do adverbs have irregular forms of comparison?

A: A very few do; *worse* is the comparative of *badly* or *ill*, and *worst* the superlative; *farther* and *further*, *farthest* and *furthest* are forms from *far*; *last* is an alternate superlative from *late*; *less* and *least* are degrees from *little*; *more* and *most* from *much*; *next* is an alternate superlative from *near*; *better* and *best* are from *well*.

Q: Does an adverb ever stand independently?

A: Yes.

Q: What is an example?

A: The answer to the preceding question.

CHAPTER VI

THE PREPOSITION

Q: What is a preposition?

A: A word governing another word or phrase, called its object, by determining a relation with some antecedent.

Q: What is an example?

A: In the sentence, the house stood by the river, *by* is a preposition, with *river* as its object, and it determines the relationship between the river and the house, which is the antecedent.

Q: What of the antecedent?

A: It may be a noun, pronoun, adjective, verb, adverb or phrase.

Q: What of the object?

A: It also may be any of the foregoing.

Q: What is the case of a noun or pronoun governed by a preposition?

A: The objective case.

Q: What is a compound preposition?

A: When two or more prepositions are intimately joined in a phrase.

Q: What are examples?

A: *Because of, on account of, etc.*

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

Q: What is another form of preposition?

A: Participles without a subject, such as *excepting*.

Q: Does a single object suffice for more than one preposition?

A: In some cases, as in the sentence, he looked out over the sea.

Q: May a preposition be used without an object?

A: Yes, in an adverbial relation to a verb, as in the sentence: he stood up.

Q: What is a peculiarity of the passive voice in connection with the preposition?

A: The preposition governing the noun in the active is retained in the passive, though without an object, as the word *at* from the active sentence, the man scowled at him, is retained in the passive sentence, he was scowled at by the man.

CHAPTER VII

THE CONJUNCTION

Question: What is a conjunction?

Answer: A word connecting various parts of a sentence.

Q: What are examples?

A: *Also, and, as, because, but, for, if, or, so, that, then, unless, what, when, while, yet, etc. .*

Q: What are two classes of conjunctions?

A: They are coördinate when connecting equal parts of a sentence; subordinate when joining an inferior part of a sentence to a superior.

CHAPTER VIII

THE INTERJECTION

Question: What is an interjection?

Answer: A word used independently, usually either to express emotion or to arrest attention.

Q: What are examples?

A: *Ab* and *bello*.

Q: What is a peculiarity of the interjection?

A: It may stand alone forming a complete sentence.

Q: In what other way is the interjection employed?

A: As an exclamation interposed in a sentence, with no grammatical relation to the other parts.

CHAPTER IX

THE SENTENCE

Question: What is a sentence?

Answer: A statement complete in itself.

Q: What are the signs of a sentence?

A: The first word begins with a capital, and the end is shown by a period, exclamation mark or a question mark.

Q: How do sentences vary?

A: They may be long and complex or short and simple.

Q: What is an example of the simplest?

A: A single word, such as *ha!* or *go!*

Q: What does the ordinary sentence contain?

A: A noun or pronoun and verb.

Q: What is an example?

A: The boy ran.

Q: What is the subject?

A: The noun or pronoun, or a phrase.

Q: What is the predicate?

A: The verb.

Q: What other words may be included in the sentence?

A: Modifiers for either subject or predicate.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

Q: What is an example?

A: The fat man eats heartily, in which the adjective *fat* qualifies the noun *man*, and the adverb *heartily* modifies the verb *eats*.

Q: How are coördinate parts of a sentence connected?

A: By a conjunction.

Q: What are such coördinate parts called?

A: Clauses.

Q: What must any clause contain?

A: Subject and predicate.

Q: What is an example?

A: In the sentence, man proposes, but God disposes, are two clauses, connected by the conjunction *but*.

Q: What are the classes of clauses?

A: *Independent*, which are complete in themselves, and *dependent*, which derive significance from a principal clause in the same sentence.

Q: What are examples?

A: The sentence above contains two independent clauses; in the sentence, we eat when we are hungry, the clause introduced by *when* is dependent.

Q: Must a dependent clause also contain its own subject and predicate?

A: Yes.

Q: What name is given to a group of words not containing a subject and predicate?

A: A phrase.

THE SENTENCE

Q: To what are such phrases related?

A: To either the subject or predicate of the sentence.

Q: What is an example?

A: In the sentence, we honor a man of such great virtues, the phrase, *of such great virtues*, has the force of an adjective qualifying the noun *man*; in the sentence, the troops fought with utmost valor, the phrase *with utmost valor* serves as an adverbial modifier of the verb.

CHAPTER X

PARSING

Question: What is done in parsing a word?

Answer: It is examined and described as to its properties and its relationship to the sentence.

Q: What is the fundamental principle for parsing?

A: The fact that a sentence ordinarily contains a subject and predicate.

Q: What is first to be noted in parsing the sentence, the boy runs.

A: The subject is *boy* and the predicate is *runs*.

Q: How do we parse the subject *boy*?

A: It is a noun, masculine gender, third person, singular number, nominative case, the subject of the verb *runs*; it is qualified by the definite article *the*.

Q: What of the predicate *runs*?

A: It is an intransitive verb; indicative mood, present tense, third person, singular number; it agrees in person and number with its subject *boy*.

Q: What would be the effect on the parsing if the sentence were changed to read, the bad boy runs fast?

A: The parsing would be as before for subject and predicate; in addition, it should be stated that

PARSING

bad is an adjective qualifying the noun *boy*, that *fast* is an adverb modifying the verb *runs*.

Q: What is a complex sentence?

A: One having a principal clause and a subordinate clause.

Q: What terms are used to distinguish the subject and predicate of a principal clause?

A: They are termed the essential or the grammatical or the logical.

Q: Are such terms necessary?

A: No, it is enough to call the subject and predicate of the principal clause the subject and predicate of the sentence, while referring to the subject and predicate of a dependent sentence as subject and predicate of the subordinate clause.

Q: What is to be noted concerning the subject of a sentence or of a subordinate clause?

A: That it may be one noun or more, or one pronoun or more, or a combination of nouns and pronouns or any words used as nouns, such as an infinitive, a participle or an adjective.

Q: What are examples?

A: In the sentence, men, women and children went hungry, the three nouns make the subject; in the sentence, you and I will go, the two pronouns make the subject.

Q: What is a name given to such coördinate nouns or pronouns?

A: The compound subject.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

Q: Does the same principle apply to either principal or subordinate clauses?

A: Yes.

Q: What of the predicate?

A: This also like the subject may be compound.

Q: What is an example?

A: In the sentence, man eats, sleeps, works, and plays, the predicate has four verbs.

Q: How do grammarians often vary the term predicate?

A: They limit predicate to the verb alone and call any word or phrase associated with the verb the complementary predicate.

Q: Is this distinction necessary?

A: No; it is enough to call the whole the predicate, specifying as to the verbal part, and calling any other part by its particular character as adjectible, adverbial, etc.

Q: What are the possible forms besides the verbal in the predicate?

A: A noun in the nominative case or an adjective, or the object of a transitive verb, or a phrase.

Q: What are examples?

A: He is a man, shows the noun in the nominative; the man is good, shows the adjective; the boy threw stones, shows the object of a transitive verb.

Q: What is a term given by grammarians to the verb *to be* in the predicate?

A: The copula,

PARSING

Q: What is the significance of this word?

A: That it is the agent in joining the subject and an
adjectible or other predicate parts following it.

Q: Is the term necessary?

A: No; it is sufficient to describe any form of *to be*
as the verbal predicate.

PART II

STUDY OF DETAILS

CHAPTER I

MASCULINE AND FEMININE FORMS

Question: What is the rule as to the gender of English nouns?

Answer: That it depends on the meaning of the word, not on the form.

Q: Are there exceptions to this rule?

A: Yes, a few words from foreign languages have distinctive endings for the genders.

Q: What are examples?

A: The masculine and feminine forms are shown in:
abbot, abbess; actor, actress; administrator, administratrix; adventurer, adventuress; count, countess; hero, heroine; master, mistress; tiger, tigress; traitor, traitoress.

Q: What is the present tendency?

A: To do away with the feminine form.

Q: What are examples?

A: Many prefer to use the words *poet* and *author* in place of *poetess* and *authoress*.

CHAPTER II

DISTINCTIVE FEATURES

Question: How is the pronoun *it* commonly employed?

Answer: As the subject of a verb without an antecedent.

Q: What is its character in such case?

A: It is an indefinite noun.

Q: What are examples?

A: It rains, it snows, etc.

Q: What is distinctive of the pronoun *what*?

A: It never has an antecedent.

Q: For what is the relative pronoun *what* substituted?

A: For *that which*.

Q: What is an example?

A: In the sentence, See what you have done, the meaning is the same as in the sentence, See that which you have done.

Q: What does this illustrate as to the antecedent of what?

A: The statement is really contained in the word itself, being the pronoun *that* of the phrase *that which*, the equivalent of *what*.

Q: What was a former use of the possessive pronouns *mine* and *thine*?

A: Before any word beginning with a vowel or silent *h*.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

Q: How is their use now limited?

A: To a poetical style.

Q: Where is the old use illustrated?

A: Throughout the Bible.

Q: What is another old usage shown in the Bible?

A: *Ye* as nominative plural of the pronoun of the second person.

Q: How was *you* formerly employed?

A: For the objective case only.

Q: What is the modern practise?

A: *You* is the form for both nominative and objective.

Q: Is *ye* still employed?

A: Only occasionally in poetry.

Q: What forms of the possessive pronouns may be used without a noun?

A: The alternate forms, *mine*, *thine*, *ours*, *hers*, *theirs*, also the possessive forms *his* and *its*.

Q: What are examples?

A: The money is mine; theirs was not a happy lot.

Q: What is an idiom?

A: A peculiar construction in the language, not justified by the rules of Grammar.

Q: What is an example?

A: The common use of a double possessive, as in the sentence, He is a friend of Susan's.

Q: What is another idiomatic use?

A: When the adjective *else* is used with certain pronouns such as *any one* or *someone*, the possessive is shown by 's added to *else* instead of to the pronoun.

DISTINCTIVE FEATURES

Q: Have grammarians objected to this use?

A: Yes; they have insisted that we must say, *any one's else*, etc., but we do not.

Q: Does Grammar make custom in speech?

A: No; custom makes Grammar.

Q: What is to be noted concerning the pronouns *each* and *other*?

A: They should be used in reference to two individuals, not for a larger number.

Q: What is an example?

A: In the sentence, They loved each other, we must suppose that only two persons are spoken of.

Q: What pronouns should be employed when the individuals referred to are more than two?

A: One and another.

Q: What is an example?

A: They loved one another, is the correct form whether the persons number three or a thousand.

Q: Are errors in the reference to the use of these pronouns common?

A: Very.

Q: What is a peculiarity of certain adjectives and adverbs?

A: They are incapable of comparison, from their nature.

Q: What are examples?

A: *Perpendicular*, *square*, and the like; one thing may be more nearly perpendicular, or more nearly square than another but not more perpendicular or squarer.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

Q: What are other examples?

A: *Full, complete, perfect.*

Q: Are deviations from the rule permissible?

A: Not according to the grammarians, but they are sometimes very convenient.

Q: What is an example?

A: *More complete*, which is shorter than *more nearly complete*.

Q: What is to be noted of *better* and *best*?

A: That *better*, and not *best* should be used for the comparative degree, when only two things are considered.

Q: Is this rule always observed?

A: No; because *best* is a brisker and more emphatic word, and is thus preferred often over *better*.

Q: Is this preference for *best* justified?

A: Perhaps; but it is better for the student to hold to the correct form.

Q: What is a split infinitive?

A: It is when an adverb is introduced between *to*, the sign of the infinitive, and the verb.

Q: What is an example?

A: *To gladly go.*

Q: Is this an error?

A: It is so regarded by most grammarians.

Q: Is there ever an advantage from the split infinitive?

A: Its use is sometimes a help to clearness of meaning.

Q: Is it, however, to be avoided by the student?

A: Yes.

DISTINCTIVE FEATURES

Q: What is to be noted of certain conjunctions?

A: They are used in pairs, sometimes in series.

Q: What are examples?

A: *Although* and *yet*, *as* and *as*, *as* and *so*, *so* and *as*,
both and *and*, *either* and *or*, *if* and *then*, *neither*
and *nor*, *now* and *now*, *whether* and *or*.

Q: What is distinctive concerning *either* and *or*, and
neither and *nor*?

A: Either of the pairs should be used only in reference
to two objects.

Q: What is a common error?

A: The use of *or* in place of *nor*, after *neither*.

Q: What is another mistake?

A: Continuing with *or* when more than two objects
are referred to.

Q: What is an example of such error?

A: Neither man or woman; neither man or woman or
child.

Q: What would the correct expressions be?

A: Neither man nor woman; no man or woman or
child.

Q: What is the distinction in the use of *ob* and *O*?

A: *Ob* is an independent exclamation, and has a comma
or exclamation mark following it; it is only
spelled with a capital at the beginning of a sen-
tence; *O* is used in direct address to a person or
thing, and is not followed by punctuation, but
it is always a capital.

Q: What are examples?

A: Oh, what's the use? O Lord!

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

Q: What is another idiom?

A: The use of *it* with a singular verb followed by a predicate noun in the plural.

Q: What is an example?

A: It was six days ago.

Q: What is the attitude of grammarians toward this idiom?

A: It has been opposed, but unsuccessfully.

Q: How can the practise be justified?

A: In some cases, the plural noun has really an adverbial force, as in the example given above; sometimes the plural noun is joined with other words, so that the effect is of a singular.

Q: What is an example of the latter use?

A: It was these things that I desired; all that follows the verb *was* expresses a single idea.

Q: What is the advantage of this use?

A: The great convenience of it as the subject.

Q: What is a common error in the use of *numeral* and *ordinal*?

A: An ordinal following a numeral.

Q: What is an example?

A: The two first men in the line.

Q: What would be the correct form?

A: The first two men in the line.

Q: Why is the error objectionable?

A: Because it is an error of fact, not merely of grammar.

DISTINCTIVE FEATURES

- Q: What is to be noted concerning the use of the word *only*?
- A: That the proper position is next to the word or words it modifies, whether following or preceding.
- Q: What is the result if it be misplaced?
- A: Ambiguity as to the meaning, or a wrong meaning.
- Q: What is an example of the right use?
- A: Only good men love righteousness.
- Q: How would a wrong position cause doubt as to the meaning?
- A: In the sentence, Good men only love righteousness, the meaning might be as in the sentence above, or it might mean that good men love only righteousness.
- Q: Is the word *only* often misplaced?
- A: Yes, both in speaking and writing.
- Q: What is a very common mistake in the number of a verb?
- A: Often it has a different number from that of its subject, which is suggested by a noun preceding it.
- Q: What is an example?
- A: The boy with all his companions were lost on the prairie; the verb is plural from the influence of the plural noun companions preceding it, but the subject is *boy*, a singular noun.
- Q: Is this error reversed?
- A: Yes; a preceding singular noun may cause a singular verb when the actual subject is plural.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

Q: How may the student practise to correct this error?

A: By detecting it in the speech or writings of others, he will learn to guard against his own use of it.

Q: What is an indirect object?

A: It is an apparent object of a verb, which is really governed by a preposition that is not expressed.

Q: What is this preposition usually?

A: Either *to* or *for*.

Q: What is an example of the indirect object?

A: In the sentence, Tell me the truth, truth is the direct object of tell, me the indirect object.

Q: Is there a separate form for the case of the indirect object?

A: No; the case is the objective, which is the same in form as the nominative, except for some pronouns.

Q: How may we show that the pronoun *to* is understood in such a sentence?

A: By expressing it; Tell to me the truth.

Q: What other verb beside *to tell* similarly has an indirect object?

A: *To give*.

Q: What verb has an indirect object governed by the preposition *for* understood?

A: *To make*.

Q: What is an example?

A: Make me a suit.

Q: Can *for* be introduced without changing the meaning?

A: Yes, make a suit for me.

DISTINCTIVE FEATURES

Q: How may verbs of this sort be tested?

A: By expressing the preposition.

Q: What is a peculiarity of some verbs?

A: Certain intransitive verbs may take an object to emphasize the meaning.

Q: What are examples?

A: He slept the sleep of the righteous; he lived a life of infamy.

Q: What name is sometimes given to such an object?

A: The cognate object.

Q: What is another curious idiom?

A: One connected with the verb *to give* and a few others, in which the active form of the verb with indirect object is changed to passive, the indirect object becoming the subject, while the direct object is retained.

Q: What constitutes the peculiarity in this construction?

A: The retention of what was the direct object in the passive sentence, for in the new sentence its position is anomalous.

Q: How is it to be parsed?

A: It cannot be parsed; it is an idiomatic use.

Q: What is an example?

A: The idea of the active verb in the sentence, The doctor gave the man a drink, may be given a passive form, The man was given a drink by the doctor; the word *drink* in the new sentence is outside the grammatical rules and therefore many

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

grammarians condemn such a usage, but it is firmly established in the language.

Q: What name might be given to such a retained object?

A: An idiomatic object.

Q: What is a peculiarity in the association of some verbs and prepositions?

A: Sometimes, when a prepositional phrase follows a transitive verb, a close relation is established between verb and preposition, so that the preposition, though deprived of its object, is retained with the verb when the latter is made passive.

Q: What is an example?

A: The patient was taken care of by the nurse, in which *of* is retained with the verb, though it has lost its object, which has now become the subject of the passive verb.

Q: What is another example?

A: The fellow was laughed at.

Q: What is the essential character of the preposition in this case?

A: It is adverbial.

Q: What was a former custom?

A: To connect the verb and such preposition by a hyphen.

Q: How is this usage to be classed?

A: As an idiom of the language.

DISTINCTIVE FEATURES

Q: In the sentence, What did he say? what is the relation of the pronoun *what* to the verb?

A: It is the object.

Q: What is the case of the pronoun?

A: The objective case.

Q: Is there any difference in form for the pronouns *which* and *what* for the nominative and objective cases?

A: No.

Q: What is an example of the nominative?

A: What is it?

Q: What is to be noted of the pronoun *who* as an interrogative?

A: That there are different forms for the nominative and the objective.

Q: What are examples?

A: 'Who was it?' shows the nominative; 'Whom did you meet?' shows the objective.

Q: What is a common error in connection with this pronoun?

A: Using the nominative case at the beginning of a question, when a pronoun is actually the object of a following verb.

Q: What is an example of this error?

A: Who did you meet?

Q: Is this accepted as an idiom?

A: Although very common, this usage is condemned as inexcusable.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

Q: What of the two forms *who* and *whom* for the relative pronoun?

A: The like error is common, and it should be avoided.

Q: What is necessary?

A: To bear constantly in mind the fact that when the pronoun, whether interrogative or relative, is the object of a verb it must have the form *whom*.

Q: What is the case of pronouns in the predicate?

A: The nominative.

Q: What is of importance in this connection?

A: Scrupulous care to use the nominative form when this differs from the objective.

Q: What are examples of the correct form?

A: It is I; It is she; It is they

Q: What are forms to be avoided?

A: It is me; It is her; It is them.

Q: What is an excuse for the use of *me* instead of *I* in the predicate?

A: It seems less self-assertive.

Q: Is a corresponding case used in another language?

A: Yes, in the French, where it is grammatically accepted.

Q: Is it then permissible to use *me* thus in English?

A: No.

Q: In what way does modesty influence grammar?

A: It is the rule that a pronoun of the first person must follow any other pronoun.

Q: What are examples?

A: You and I; him and me.

DISTINCTIVE FEATURES

Q: What are errors to be avoided?

A: I and you; me and him, etc.

Q: What is the rule as to the agreement of the verb when the subjects are pronouns of different persons?

A: When different persons are joined as the subject, the verb agrees with the second person rather than the third, and with the first rather than with the second.

Q: What is an example?

A: Either you or he are mistaken; either you or I am mistaken.

Q: What is seen to be the effect in thus applying the rule?

A: A very awkward construction.

Q: What is advisable?

A: To express the thought somewhat differently.

Q: How might this be done in the sentences above?

A: By repetition of the verb; either you are mistaken, or he is; either you are mistaken or I am.

Q: What is an alternate method?

A: The use of an uninflected auxiliary.

Q: What is an example?

A: The use of *must*: Either you or he must be mistaken; either you or I must be mistaken.

Q: What is a collective noun?

A: One singular in form, plural in meaning.

Q: What are examples?

A: Family, crowd, multitude.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

Q: What is to be noted concerning the verb having such a noun as subject?

A: Often, the verb may be singular or plural according as the purpose is to express the subject's unity or its complexity.

Q: What are examples?

A: The multitude was vast; the multitude were cheering.

Q: What is the difference?

A: In the first, the unity of the mass determines the number of the verb, in the second the individuals composing the throng regulate the number of the verb.

Q: What is to be noted of certain plural words?

A: That when singular in meaning their verb is singular.

Q: What are examples?

A: *Means* and *news*.

Q: Does *means* take also a plural verb?

A: Yes, when it refers to more than one thing.

Q: What is a similar case?

A: The singular of the verb is used with a plural subject specifying a sum of money, or the like.

Q: What is an example?

A: The thousand dollars had been spent.

Q: What is the explanation of this usage?

A: The fact that the amount of money specified is actually regarded as a single sum.

DISTINCTIVE FEATURES

Q: What is an idiomatic use of the word *many*?

A: It is used with a singular verb in such a sentence as, *many a child is unhappy*.

Q: What is the number of the subject in this sentence?

A: The subject *child* is singular in form, but plural in idea because *many* qualifies it.

Q: How would the idea be expressed without the idiomatic construction?

A: *Many children are unhappy*.

Q: What is another irregularity in connection with *many*?

A: When it is preceded by the indefinite article and an adjective.

Q: What is an example?

A: *A great many children are unhappy*.

Q: What is evident here?

A: The singular idea of *a* is not continued in the subject and verb.

Q: What is a similar idiomatic usage?

A: *A few* is followed by a plural verb.

Q: What is the number of the verb when the subject is a number of nouns connected by *and*.

A: The plural.

Q: Is there an exception?

A: Sometimes, the relationship of the nouns has the force of a singular, and the verb is then singular.

Q: What is an example?

A: *This man and prince was truly noble*, in which *man* and *prince* describe one person, and the verb is therefore singular.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

Q: What would be the meaning of the sentence, The man and prince were truly noble?

A: The plural form of the verb shows that two persons are spoken of.

Q: What is the effect sometimes when *and* is associated with *not* as a conjunction in the subject?

A: The subject may remain singular and take a singular verb.

Q: What is an example?

A: Love, and not hate, moves the world, in which the verb is singular.

Q: What is the status of the phrase, *and not hate*?

A: It is really an independent phrase, and the verb takes its number from the noun love, which is singular.

Q: When a verb follows one noun of a compound subject, and the other nouns of the subject come later in the sentence, what is the rule?

A: The verb agrees in number with the noun preceding it.

Q: What are examples?

A: The man was ready, and his wife and the children; At this interruption, the members of the congregation were profoundly shocked, and the clergyman also.

Q: When the verb precedes a number of nouns forming a compound subject, what is the rule as to number?

A: It agrees with the first of the nouns.

DISTINCTIVE FEATURES

Q: When does this rule apply especially?

A: When the verb is preceded by an introductory word.

Q: What is an example?

A: There is sufficient space and all the materials necessary.

Q: May the plural verb be used in such case?

A: Yes, if preferred.

Q: What is the rule for the number of the verb when *it* is the subject and there is a plural predicate?

A: The verb is singular.

Q: What is an example?

A: It is the men of genius who fail oftenest.

Q: What is a possible source of confusion?

A: The choice between adverb and adjective in certain cases.

Q: What is the test?

A: Whether the reference is to the subject or to the verb.

Q: What are examples?

A: He advanced, calm in the face of peril; He advanced calmly in the face of peril; in the first sentence *calm* is a predicate adjective, qualifying the pronoun *he*; in the second, *calmly* is an adverb modifying the verb.

Q: What is necessary in this connection?

A: The student must discriminate as to whether he means to qualify the subject or to modify the action of the verb; for the first, an adjective; for the second, an adverb.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

Q: What is the difference between, I look sadly, and I look sad?

A: The first tells my manner of looking at another person or thing; the second tells how I look to another person.

Q: What is a common error?

A: This has to do with the verb *to feel*, which is often accompanied by an adverb when an adjective should be used.

Q: What is an example of the correct usage?

A: I feel bad, in which the adjective qualifies *myself*, the unexpressed object of the verb.

Q: Is it correct to say: I feel badly?

A: No; one might as well say, I feel hotly.

Q: Who are most frequently in error as to this usage?

A: Those who have learned something as to the relationship between verb and adverb and apply their knowledge in the wrong place.

Q: Is the word *than* a preposition?

A: No.

Q: Why is it necessary to bear this fact in mind?

A: To avoid errors in the case of pronouns following.

Q: What would be the effect on the case of a pronoun following if *than* were a preposition?

A: The pronoun would be in the objective case.

Q: Since *than* is not a preposition, what regulates the case of the pronoun following?

A: The pronoun is nominative or objective, according as it is subject or object of a verb understood.

DISTINCTIVE FEATURES

Q: What is an example?

A: They serve God more zealously than me, in which *me* is the object of the verb *serve* understood.

Q: What is another example?

A: They serve God more zealously than I, in which *I* is the subject of the verb *serve* understood.

Q: How may the student determine the case of the pronoun for any sentence?

A: By supplying the verb that is understood, and noting whether the pronoun is subject or object of this verb.

Q: What are two old idiomatic phrases in English?

A: *Had rather* and *had better*.

Q: Is it correct to employ these?

A: Yes.

Q: What are substitute forms?

A: *Would rather* and *would better*, which have been widely advocated.

Q: What of *would rather*?

A: This newer form is permissible.

Q: What of *would better*?

A: It is in common use but *had better* is to be preferred.

Q: What similar form is to be avoided?

A: *Would sooner*.

CHAPTER III

VULGARISMS

Question: What is the commonest vulgarism?

Answer: The use of *don't*, instead of *doesn't*.

Q: When is *don't* proper?

A: When it is a contraction of *do not*.

Q: When it is improper?

A: When it is a contraction of *does not*.

Q: What is a phrase to be avoided?

A: *He don't*; or the like contraction with any subject that is third person singular.

Q: What are other contractions that must be avoided?

A: *Ain't* and *Hain't*.

Q: Why are these contractions objectionable?

A: Because they are characteristic of the illiterate.

Q: What is a wrong use of *them*?

A: Its substitution for *those*.

Q: What is an example?

A: I saw them fellers runnin'.

Q: What is to be noted?

A: That *them* must never be used to qualify a noun.

Q: When is *those* sometimes wrongly used for *that*?

A: Before a singular noun in a phrase containing a plural idea.

VULGARISMS

Q: What is an example?

A: A careless speaker says, those kind of men, when he should say, that kind of men.

Q: What is a common error in connection with the word *real*?

A: It is used instead of *really* before an adjective.

Q: What is an example?

A: A real good man.

Q: What is the correct form?

A: A really good man.

Q: What is to be noted concerning the preposition *between*?

A: It is properly used in reference to only two persons or things.

Q: What is the corresponding preposition for more than two?

A: *Among*.

Q: What is an example of a proper phrase?

A: Between you and me.

Q: What is an example of an improper phrase?

A: Between us three.

Q: How should this be expressed?

A: Among us three.

Q: What additional fact is to be noted in the phrase: between you and me?

A: The pronoun *me* is in the objective case as an object of the preposition.

Q: What is an error often made in this connection?

A: Between you and I.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

Q: What is the cause of this error?

A: A little learning, in which it has been discovered that it is wrong to say *you and me*, when the pronouns are the subject of a verb; and this knowledge of the nominative is misapplied when the pronoun should be in the objective case.

Q: What are forms to be avoided?

A: You and me are friends; You and him are friends, etc.; between you and he, etc.

Q: How is the case of the pronoun to be tested?

A: It must be in the nominative if it is the subject of a verb, in the objective if the object of a verb or preposition.

Q: What is to be noted in connection with the use of an auxiliary verb?

A: It must be used always with a participle never with the past tense of another verb.

Q: What is an example?

A: I have did it, is a gross error instead of: I have done it.

Q: What is the contrary fact?

A: The participle cannot be substituted for the past tense used without an auxiliary.

Q: What is an example of the correct form?

A: I did it.

Q: What is an example of the incorrect use of the participle?

A: I done it.

VULGARISMS

Q: What is a common error?

A: The substitution of the participle for the past *saw*; *I seen, he seen*, etc., instead of *I saw, he saw*, etc.

Q: How are blunders in this connection to be avoided?

A: By careful study of the irregular verbs.

CHAPTER IV

PUNCTUATION

Question: What is the object of punctuation?

Answer: Help toward clear understanding for the reader.

Q: What is the use of the comma?

A: To separate subjects or predicates, to inclose clauses and phrases and words in apposition; after the name of a person addressed or his designation; for emphasis before conjunctions; to set off an inverted part of a sentence; to separate parts of an address or date, etc.

Q: What is to be noted concerning the last use?

A: A comma is not placed between the month and the day of the month.

Q: What is the semicolon used for?

A: Mainly between coördinate clauses in a compound sentence.

Q: What is the present tendency?

A: Toward less use of the semicolon.

Q: For what is the colon employed?

A: Chiefly to call attention to what follows.

Q: What is the purpose of a period?

A: To close a sentence; it is used also after abbreviations.

PUNCTUATION

Q: When is the interrogation mark used?

A: It takes the place of a period at the end of a question.

Q: When is the exclamation mark used?

A: It takes the place of a period at the end of an exclamatory sentence, and it is also used after an exclamation within the sentence.

Q: What use is made of the apostrophe?

A: It stands in place of any letter omitted from a word, and it is also the sign of the possessive case.

Q: How is the hyphen used?

A: It connects the parts of a compound word and is placed after a syllable at the end of a line when the remainder of the word follows in the next line.

CHAPTER V

CAPITALS

Question: When must a capital letter be used?

Answer: In beginning a sentence, a line of poetry, the name of a month, or day of the week, the name of a person or place and any derivative adjective, any appellation of the Deity, a direct quotation, any chief word in a title or heading, an honorary title associated with a proper name; and also for the pronoun *I* and the interjection *O*.

CHAPTER VI
CONCLUSION

Question: What is distinctive of the English language?

Answer: The order of words in a sentence is the logical one.

Q: What is the effect of this?

A: It suffices for clearness, so that highly inflected forms are not necessary as in other languages.

Q: What is the prime requirement for the correct use of English?

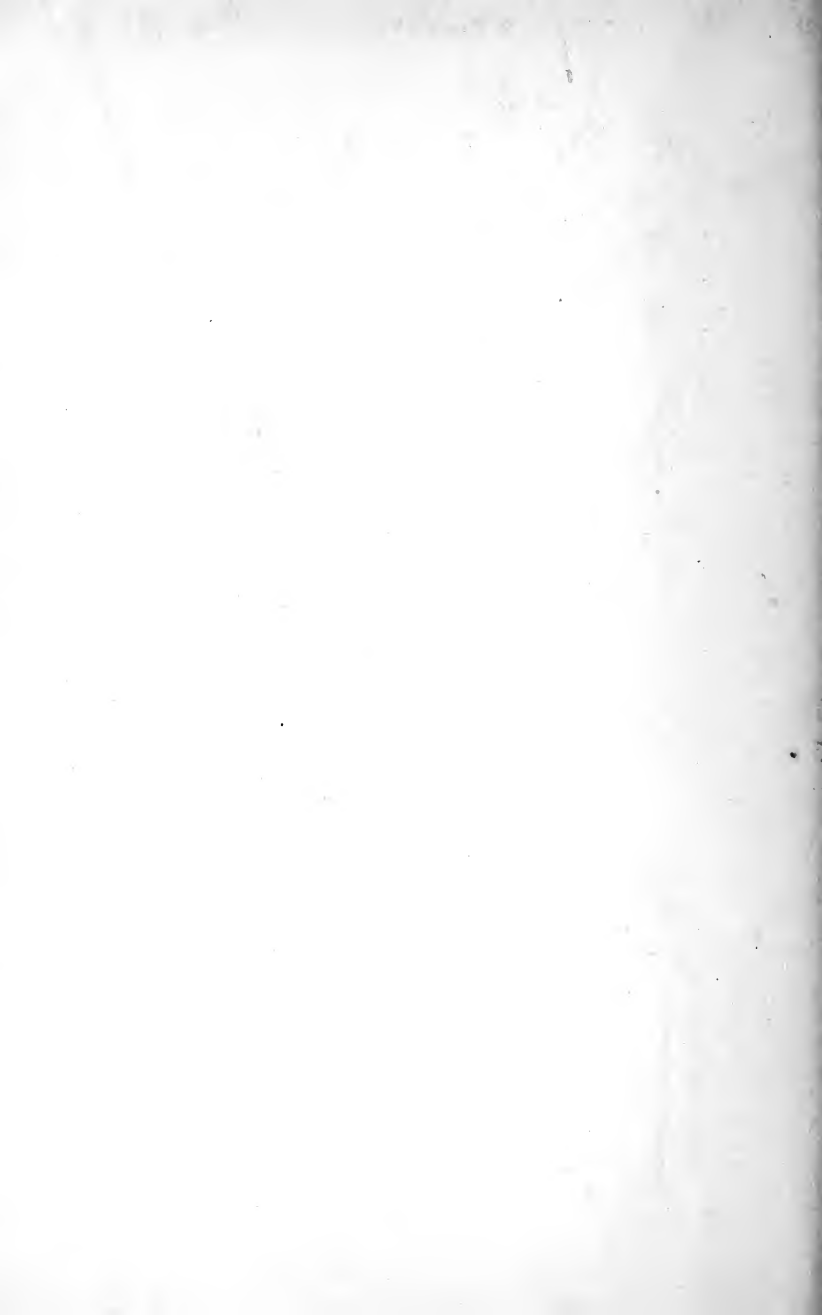
A: Orderly thinking.

Q: Why does this effect follow?

A: Because orderly thinking means a logical arrangement of ideas, and therefore simplicity and clearness in the expression of these ideas.









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